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A second interim report on a reading program for Mexican-American children in an East Los Angeles elementary school notes that reading ability in the primary grades has improved. In January, 1967, the average first grade reading score on the Stanford Reading Test was at the third percentile, whereas in January, 1968, the score was at the eighth percentile. This joint program of the California State College at Los Angeles, the Los Angeles schools, and the Youth Opportunities Foundation operates in a regular school setting, with a pupil teacher ratio of 29.1. Individualization instruction and parent participation was stressed in this reading language program involving writing, phonics, word discrimination, comprehension, and self teaching. Special materials were developed, including four bilingual books, and an after-school program in Mexican culture was offered. A second part of this report presents the procedures and results of an oral language analysis phase of the project, in which the relationship between oral English syntax and reading achievement was studied. Recommendations for future classroom action and further language research are included. For first interim report, see ED 010 532. (NH)

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INTERIM REPORT
Project No. 5-0559
Contract No. OE-6-85-070

A READING PROGRAM FOR MEXICAN-AMERICAN CHILDREN

March 1968

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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

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SECOND INTERIM REPORT

Project No. 5-0559
Contract No. OE-6-85-070

A READING PROGRAM FOR MEXICAN-AMERICAN CHILDREN

Constance Amsden

California State College at Los Angeles

Los Angeles, California

March 1968

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ABSTRACT

This is the Second Interim Report on "A Reading Program for Mexican-American Children," conducted at the Malabar Street Elementary School in East Los Angeles, under a contract between the U.S. Office of Education and California State College at Los Angeles. The First Interim Report (August 31, 1966) covered the work of the first year. This report covers the period from September 1, 1966 through March 1, 1968.

The program is designed to improve the reading ability of primary-grade Mexican-American children. First results indicating success in meeting this objective are reported. The average score for Malabar first-grade children (A1) was at the 8th percentile on the Stanford Reading Test in January, 1968; in January, 1967, the corresponding score was at the 3rd percentile. This improvement has been achieved in a regular public school setting with a pupil-teacher ratio of 29.1, during regular school hours.

Individualized instruction and parent participation have been emphasized in all five aspects of the reading-language program for primary grade: (1) writing, (2) phonics, (3) word discrimination, (4) comprehension, and (5) self-teaching. Specially developed Project materials, including four Spanish-English books, have been completed, and an after-school Mexican cultural program has been instituted.

Extensive research has been carried on to determine whether or not competency in oral English syntax is related to reading achievement. In this study, thirty-seven measures with inter-rater reliabilities of .80 or higher have been used to study grade-level trends to identify language measures which differentiate between children in the highest and lowest thirds of their grade with respect to reading achievement. A multiple correlation of .664 was obtained between nine measures of oral language and reading achievement.

Several recommendations for future classroom action and language research are made.

A READING PROGRAM FOR MEXICAN-AMERICAN CHILDREN--RESUME OF THE SECOND INTERIM REPORT

This program has been a multi-faceted project to improve the reading ability of children in the Malabar Street School. First results indicating success in meeting this objective are reported. The average score for Malabar first-grade children (A1) was at the 8th percentile on the Stanford Reading Test in January, 1968; in January 1967, the corresponding score was at the 3rd percentile.

On this same test 7.5 per cent of A1 project pupils scored in stanine 3 or above in 1966, as compared with 22 per cent in 1967, and 55 per cent in 1968. When comparisons are made by grade placement, 25 per cent of the 1966 A1 project pupils, 50 per cent of the 1967 pupils and 75 per cent of the 1968 pupils scored at or above a grade placement of 1.4. In terms of the national average, 37.5 per cent of the project first-graders scored within the average or above-average range on the state-wide reading test as compared with 1 per cent of the children who did so before the project began.

The Malabar School is typical of most schools in the East Los Angeles area in many respects: a large enrollment (1,401), with children grouped according to age rather than according to estimated learning ability; a high percentage of pupil turnover; a pupil-teacher ratio of 29 in the primary grades and 34 in the upper grades, which has not been lowered for the Project; a faculty selected and replaced according to usual procedures, with the principal choosing among currently available interviewees. The problems of attracting and retaining teachers which characterize inner-city schools are faced at Malabar. Of a faculty of forty-five teachers, only twelve have permanent tenure in the district; thirty-three teachers, or almost three-fourths, have less than three years of teaching experience.

The instructional program of this project has involved no additional teaching personnel except two preschool teachers, no additional housing or equipment, and no supplements to the instructional program other than an after-school dance program conducted by a specially employed artist who conducts lessons in Mexican culture, dance, poetry, and song.

Within this typical framework for an inner-city school, Project teachers have worked together to evolve curriculum change and to develop their own teaching materials, with only the assistance of such time as the Project Director and one part-time member of the Project staff could take from their administrative and research responsibilities, and such resources as could be made available from a limited budget for books and self-instructional materials. In other words, this Project has involved a concerted attempt to improve reading achievement without additional resources so that there would be greater likelihood of the achievement which took place being attributed to such factors as instructional philosophy and method, community interest, and parent participation, rather than to enrichment factors which could not readily be provided in other inner-city schools.

Project philosophy and roles of participants. The following five purposes, quoted from the original proposal, have continued to guide our work. Although the first purpose is the one to which all others contribute, a balanced emphasis has been maintained:

1. Reading. To help Mexican-American children become vocationally competent adults by teaching them to read at least up to grade level in the primary grades, thus laying a foundation for future success both in school and on the job.

2. Oral language development. To accelerate the functional oral language development of Mexican-American children age 3-9 years so that it will both serve as an adequate base for reading instruction and enable the child to communicate at optimum ability.

3. Parent participation. To guide parents in learning how to help their children develop academic skills so that the work of the school may be continued during many of the hours the child spends at home.

4. Individualized instruction. To offer these children the type of education defined as: "discriminated knowledge integrated into the functioning self," so that the time and effort they and their teachers put into their education will result in an informed citizenry.

5. Self-instruction. To help these children not only to learn but also assume the responsibility for their own academic growth so that in future years they will be able to teach themselves as academic and vocational horizons expand.

The Project philosophy has emphasized the cognitive theory of learning and the Gestalt tradition, which looks upon learning as a process of organizing the field, as a search for structure. The organizing instruction, and the sequencing of learning experiences are designed to facilitate the child's search for intellectual structure in the reading process.

The Project philosophy has resulted in a rigorous, individualized intellectual program, placed in a humanistic setting. If one sees only the setting, as in a casual, unguided visit to Project classrooms, one might get a false impression of permissiveness or inadequate organization. On the other hand, an examination of certain sections of this report (the intellectual learnings required of each child as outlined in Charts 1 through 6) might give one a false impression that academic compulsiveness characterizes the program.

The Project philosophy is further clarified through an examination of the roles of participants, as briefly described in Chapter II. The administrative role is seen as one in which the total environment of teachers, parent participants, and children is modified in whatever manner seems necessary to encourage the greatest amount of exploration, with the Principal and Project Director serving as resource people, encouraging and helping to implement whatever changes in teaching method might ensue. It is as impractical to assume that one can indoctrinate for teacher and pupil self-actualization as to assume that one can develop passive conformity by encouraging independent action. As an example, new instructional materials were provided to teachers without guidelines for their use, but with close and immediate availability of resource personnel.

If teachers are to innovate, it is essential that they experience a sense of freedom to explore and a sense of security which is based on the administrator's communicating complete faith in him as a professional person and as an individual. According to Maslow, the resolution of the basic conflict each person experiences between defensive forces and growth trends is related to his perception of safety and free choice in the situations he faces. That the administrator achieved some success in implementing this philosophy was shown by the increasing frequency of such teacher statements as "This did not work," "I am going to try this," "I've discovered why this works," and the like rather than "What do you want me to do?" or "Is it all right if I . . ."

The teacher's role, in his relationships to children, is that of guide and facilitator, helping the child to achieve competency at each level of learning activity, and having materials ready for him when he is ready to move on to a new level The child's role involves active responsibility for his own learning. Project children are encouraged to choose the books they will read, the stories they will write, the words they need to learn. Although the teacher helps the child by providing a choice among reading materials at his level, and although she presents the phonics material in a carefully designed sequence, he has freedom from the first in the writing situation and in the choice of self-teaching materials during his time at the self-instruction center. Moreover, as he becomes a more competent reader, he increasingly makes more choices in other aspects of the program.

Parents play a vital role in Malabar classrooms, providing individualized help to children in the preschool and primary grades. Their presence constitutes an endorsement to the children of the significance of the learning tasks they work on together. Parents also fulfill a needed role in stimulating oral language development through adult-child conversations which enrich the child's vocabulary and encourage him to formulate his ideas in words.

Five aspects of the instructional program. It is impossible to summarize the elements of the program briefly. In all, 80 per cent of the instructional time is devoted to facilitating the children's progress in the following aspects of the reading-language program: (1) writing, (2) phonics, (3) word discrimination, (4) comprehension, and (5) self-teaching. Approximately one-third of this time is devoted to each of the first three aspects. Comprehension is emphasized throughout the program; and self-teaching techniques are utilized as much as possible in each of the first three areas.

The teacher spends most of the reading-language time at Station I (a kidney-shaped table seating the one-third of the class that are working individually with the teacher on whatever aspect of the program is being emphasized during that instructional period, i.e. writing or phonics or word discrimination). The teacher, however, also has supervisory contact over the children at Station II who are engaged in completing relevant workbook material or teacher-prepared assignment sheets. The remaining third of the children have a wide choice of books, word games, and other self-teaching materials at Station III. Each group has time at each of these three stations for each of the three major aspects of the program.

In Chapter III, each of the five aspects of the program is presented in some detail, with a statement of rationale, procedures used, and an account of ways in which the child searches for intellectual structure through that aspect of the program. In Chapter IV are presented statements written by nine project teachers and two resource teachers when they were participating in the "In-Service and Evaluation Seminar" for summer, 1967.

Instructional materials. Specially developed Project materials, commercial materials, and teacher-developed materials have all been used in combination to further the learnings of children as they have progressed from the preschool through to the second-reader level. Of the materials developed especially for this project, those which will probably have the broadest applicability are the four Spanish-English books of which several color-reproduced prototype copies have been prepared. The "Ing" book and the "S" book are designed to deal with special difficulties experienced by bilingual Mexican-American children. The two others, written by upper-grade Malabar children and illustrated by a professional artist who reproduced the children's drawings, have special value in that the children identify with the leading characters, find the vocabulary and syntactical structure appropriate to their language background, are assured about the acceptability of the Spanish language in school, and enjoy the use of cultural symbols of their Mexican heritage.

Pilot study of teachers' and parents' activities in the classroom. During 1966-67, a number of instruments were developed and tried out in the Project classrooms. The first task attempted was threefold; (1) to identify specific teaching and learning behaviors occurring in the classroom (2) to categorize these behaviors as to function and (3) to develop an instrument to be used in recording and categorizing observed behaviors and to test it for appropriateness and usability. To achieve this goal, each classroom was visited at several intervals of thirty to forty minutes each, arranged to include each period of the school day.

Study of the journals kept during these visits revealed that teachers, parents, and pupils all perform six distinct functions: (1) initiating activities through verbal and non-verbal means, (2) responding to requests, questions and statements, (3) expanding other's ideas, questions or statements by means of conversation (e.g., extending a sentence or supplying needed words), (4) explaining or showing how, (5) supporting and giving encouragement, and (6) correcting another's learning behavior. The pupil had a seventh function, i.e. correcting his own behavior. The parent also performed a seventh function, i.e. sharing activities, taking turns and doing things with the pupils.

Three observation schedules (pupil function, parent function and teacher function) and directions for observing functions in the classroom were devised. In order to give each observation contextual meaning, the observer is directed to list the activities which are taking place each 15-minute period, making his own judgment as to the things which impressed him most during the observation, and stating the significance of his impression. He is invited to question any aspect of the observed activities and to comment on them.

Trial observations using the instruments were made by the director of the project and the reporter. As a result, the following suggestions were made regarding future use:

1. Only one schedule (teacher function, pupil function, or parent function) should be used by an observer during an observation.

2. At least two observers should observe the same person in each specific function to check further the observable behaviors related to the function categories.

3. Observations should be schedule to permit three observers to study respectively parent, pupil, and teacher functions at the same time.

4. Various classroom periods should be video taped; video tapes should be analyzed as to function categories.

The next form developed was a simple open-ended reaction form in which the teachers recorded, during an eight-week period, how they felt at the end of the school day. Teachers reported feeling from "O.K." to "Great" 56 per cent of the time. In one chart, pupils' activities as reported by teachers were classified according to how teachers said they felt at the end of the school day. Inspection of the chart reveals that, regardless of a teacher's reported feeling for the day, her report of pupil activities and accomplishments seemed unaffected; throughout the reports, self-help, pacing, pride in learning and other Project goals were emphasized.

Responses to the open-ended question on vivid incidents were grouped into eleven categories; the three categories which had the highest frequency were concerned with pupil achievement, pupil motivation, and parents' participation.

School-Community Relations

Increasing participation of parents in school instruction is evidenced by the development of summer home libraries, increased interest in home study and in the immediate and concerned responses to home questionnaires.

Just as this report went "to press," 149 responses were obtained from parents to the principal's letter (in both Spanish and English), sent to the approximately five hundred families in the Malabar community. Of these, 53 were in Spanish and have therefore been translated. All parent responses are presented *verbatim* in Appendix D.

Cultural Activities

The after-school Spanish language and Mexican dance program has increased its enrollment and has complete community suport. The use of Spanish and Spanish-language books and materials in the classroom is continuing.

Methodology of Research on Oral Language

Tape recordings of Oral Language Interviews for children in grades 1 through 3, and the spontaneous speech of preschool and kindergarten children, were transcribed by bilingual transcribers according to instructions given in the First Interim Report. The next step was segmentation of the typescripts into syntactic units for analysis. Each word or sound was classified under one of the following classifications: (1) reportage responsums (message-carrying responses that are incomplete predications), T-units (minimal terminable units), and maze material. The rationale behind this choice of units, and the directions for segmenting the typescript, or making the first-level analysis, are given in the First Interim Report.

Sampling method. The second-level analysis was made on oral language samples of approximately 300 words for those Oral Language Interview typescripts in which the child spoke more than 300 words following the warm-up period. For preschool and kindergarten children three 100-word samples representative of the school day were obtained. Instructions for sampling are given in Appendix A.

Language measures used. Two additional measures of basis structure were added to the first-level analysis: (1) mean length of three longest T-units and (2) mean length of three longest T-units without variations from standard English. Since length of T-unit varies with the topic discussed and since the conversation of the preschool children includes many short imperative sentences, it seemed that mean length of the three longest T-units would more accurately reflect the child's maximum level of performance. However, since some of the longest T-units involved awkward expressions and syntactic confusion, the second measure was added.

Each T-unit was classified as to type of structural pattern; a modification of Loban's classification was used. All finite verbs, used in both main and subordinate clauses, were classified into one of fifteen categories (listed in Appendix A).

Adverbials were classified into four types: intensifiers, adverbials, adverbial phrases, and adverbial clauses. For each type of adverbial, a count was obtained for each typescript, and ratios to number of verbs computed. The complexity of adverbial constructions was reflected in another language measure, i.e. the ratio of number of total adverbials to number of adverbial heads.

The classification of nominal structures included twenty-five types; however, only five types were used with sufficient frequency to be reported separately; all others were classified as "infrequently used nominals."

Each subordinate clause was tabulated as belonging to one of three types: adverb, adjective, or noun clauses. A new type of subordination ratio (i.e. ratio of clauses to T-units) was computed as well as the more traditional subordination ratio.

Twelve variety measures were computed for each transcript; all except one (the type-token ratio) were developed especially for this study. The first measure was based on a grid for each child in which verb types were classified within predication patterns. The second measure also involved a grid which revealed the number of combinations of adverbial types with possible positions within the T-unit. Three variety measures were concerned with variety in the use of nominals: (1) number of different nominal types used, (2) number of different adjectives used, and (3) number of infrequently used nominals. Variety counts on the use of types of compounds and verbals were also computed. As a by-product of the study of adverbials, a separate count was made of the number of different uncommon prepositions, adverbs, and intensifiers used by each child. The remaining variety measures were the type-token ratio and the following by-products of the type-token analysis: (1) number of expressions of tentativeness, and (2) number of words added to the duplicated type-token list.

Syntactical variations from standard English were grouped into Loban's eighteen categories, with one new category added, i.e. omission of pronouns.

Findings. A study of inter-rater reliabilities revealed that, on the basis of in-service training, our staff of Mexican-American college students had achieved a high reliability on most of the language measures used, despite the fact that they had no courses in linguistics. In several measures (e.g. number of adjective and noun clauses), so many pupils had zero scores that it was not feasible to work reliability coefficients. For the fifty-one measures on which inter-rater reliability was checked, eighteen measures had reliability coefficients above .90 and an additional nineteen measures had reliabilities above .80.

Reliabilities of language measures across interview situations (on two different occasions with two interviewers and with the language samples analyzed by two different analysts) were naturally much lower. Only four of the measures had reliability coefficients above .80 when all these sources of unreliability were taken into account. However, twenty-three measures had reliabilities above .50, which were adequate for group comparisons. Reliabilities could be increased by increasing sample length if data were to be used to appraise individuals.

Consistent decreases with grade level were found in: per cent of words classified as reportage responsums, total number of variations from standard English, and total verb variations.

Means for four first-level analysis measures increased consistently with grade level: per cent of words in T-units, mean length of all T-units, of the three longest T-units, and the three longest T-units without variations.

The analysis of adverbials shows that children improved with grade level in ratio of total adverbials/verbs as well as ratio of adverbials to verbs modified.

Five measures of subordination showed a consistent increase with grade level, i.e. number of subordinate clauses, ratio of clauses to T-units, number of both noun and adjective clauses, and mean length of clause.

The largest number of measures showing consistent improvement with grade were the variety measures. These included: number of combinations of predications with verb-types used, number of combinations of adverbial types with positions of these movables within the sentence, number of different nominal types used, number of infrequently used nominals, number of different adjectives used, number of different types of compounds used, number of different uncommon prepositions, adverbs, and intensifiers used, number of expressions of tentativeness, and number of words added to duplicated type-token list.

The following measures were selected for use in computing a multiple R with reading achievement. Each of these had a low relationship with reading achievement, even for a sample selected as homogeneous with respect to number of T-unit words available for second-level analysis.

	Correlation with Total Reading (corrected raw score)
Number of adjective clauses	.35
Number of infrequently used nominals	.30
Per cent of words in mazes	-.32
Per cent of words in reportage responsums	.52
Number of expressions of tentativeness	.29
Number of adverbs	-.22
Number of different adjectives used	.24
Mean length of three longest T-units without variations	.23
Number of words added to type-token list	.28

Many of these correlations would undoubtedly be higher in a more heterogeneous sample. The multiple R of these variables with corrected raw score in Total Reading was .664. When end-of-project data are available, this study will be replicated to cross-validate the multiple R and to ascertain the relative weights of different oral language variables in the prediction of reading achievement.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made for the project in both language research and in the classroom.

A. Instruction

1. The preschool program, staffed by bilingual teachers should be continued.

2. The Malabar preschool should serve as a center for the expansion of the education of children below the age of five within the home environment.

3. The project instruction and experimentation should be expanded to all teachers in grades K through 6. The entire school should become a model school providing quality instruction in an urban setting.

4. Increasing emphasis should be given to improving instruction in mathematics and science with the utilization of outside business and professional experts in each field.

5. Instruction in the Spanish language, Mexican history, dance, and other cultural activities should be continued and expanded.

6. The development of specially prepared bilingual books and other instructional materials which are based on the academic and language needs of Mexican-American children should be continued and expanded.

7. Released time should be provided teachers for project-related responsibilities and home visitations.

8. Recruitment training, and employment of Mexican-American college students should be continued but expanded from their present role as project research assistants to include participation in classroom instruction.

9. Parental advice on the instruction of their children in the Malabar classrooms should be increasingly sought and utilized.

10. Parent participation in the classrooms should be continued and expanded.

B. Language Research

1. The oral language research currently under way at Malabar, should be expanded to include grades 4 through 6; thus providing an opportunity for a longitudinal study of the relationship of oral-language-syntax competency to reading ability.

2. A pilot program should be initiated to determine whether stimulation of the child's pre-linguistic utterances and early language development in the home will result in increased language competency upon entrance to preschool.

3. With the professional assistance of bilingual Mexican-American professors at the university level, the children's oral language competency should be expanded to include investigation of the following:

    (a) Under what language-eliciting situations do children respond most readily in Spanish or in English?

    (b) Under what circumstances does the Spanish-speaking child feel constrained to mask his Spanish oral language competency?

    (c) What is the relationship of reading achievement to competency in verbal mediation in Spanish and in English?

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background Information

In the first interim report, the history of this Project was traced. Briefly, it had its origin in a pilot language development preschool project developed in 1964-65 and funded by the Los Angeles City Schools. Study of tape recordings of the preschoolers' oral language revealed that few children from this bilingual residential area were likely to attain by first grade the degree of proficiency in the language of instruction which is desirable as a base for instruction in reading. It seemed evident that if these children were to attain adequate competency in reading, (1) a very large percentage of the school day in kindergarten and the primary grades would have to be devoted to language development and reading; (2) reading instruction in the primary grades would have to be individualized and adapted to the special language needs of these children; and (3) parental involvement in helping the children learn would have to be extensive.

With Mr. Felix Castro of the Youth Opportunities Foundation, a design for the present project was developed during the fall and winter of 1964-65. With the cooperation of the Los Angeles City Schools and California State College at Los Angeles, a research proposal was submitted to the Department of Health, Education and Welfare in the spring of 1965. The following fall, work began.

The first interim report covered the work from September 1, 1965 to August 31, 1966. The second report covers work from September 1, 1966 through February, 1968. In addition to a description of the instructional program and teachers' reactions thereto, it includes: (1) analysis of baseline data for the preschool and kindergarten children, whose tapes had not been transcribed during the first project year; (2) procedures for and findings from the second-level analysis of the oral language of children in the primary grades; (3) data on the reliability of additional measures used in the second-level analysis, and (4) data on the relationship of oral language measures to grade level, and reading achievement.

Children Included in the Study

A continuous enrollment of approximately forty preschool children, three to five years of age, has been maintained throughout the project. The preschool children are selected from those whose parents wish them to attend. The selection was made on the following bases:

1. Age (three to four years old).

2. Sex (balance with respect to the number of boys and girls was sought).

3. Language (balance with respect to number of Spanish- and English-speaking children was sought).

4. Willingness of parents to participate in the project (considered essential to optimum development in language).

5. Parents' willingness for teacher to make home visits once a week.

Since these preschool children were from volunteering families, they may constitute an unrepresentative sample of children in the area.

Each year, two kindergarten classes totalling approximately fifty children have been included in the project.

According to the original plan, only the preschool and kindergarten children were to have been included during 1965-66; then, during 1966-67, these children were to have moved up into the kindergarten and first grade respectively, while a new group of children entered preschool. In the third and final year of the study (1967-1968), the project was to have been extended to include two second grade classes. However, the interest in the program has been sufficiently great that other teachers have sought to enter the program.

Research Hypotheses

Although the research hypotheses cannot be tested until end-of-project data are in, they are quoted from the first interim report for the convenience of the reader:

1. Children who have had the enriched, individualized instructional program, described in Part One as the Project Method, will attain significantly higher reading scores on standardized reading achievement tests than did the base-line groups measured in Spring, 1966.

2. Children who have had the Project instructional program will also attain significantly higher results on measures of oral language development.

3. Children who have been included in the program for two or three years will attain significantly higher scores in both reading and oral language development than those who have been included in the program for shorter periods of time.

4. Despite the relatively heavy emphasis of the Project program on reading instruction, Project children will not achieve significantly lower scores in arithmetic.

Organization of This Report

This report is divided into three major sections: Part One, "Action in the Classroom," Part Two, "Research on Oral Language," and Part Three, "Summary and Recommendations."

In Part One, the first chapter (Chapter II) is devoted to a statement of the Project philosophy and a consideration of the roles of the various Project participants. (i.e. administrators, teachers, parents and children). In Chapter III, each of five aspects of the instructional program is presented. For each aspect, a statement of rationale is followed by an outline of procedures and by a statement concerning the child's search for intellectual structure through that mode or aspect of instruction. The five aspects of instruction are: writing, phonics, word discrimination, reading comprehension, and self-teaching. For each of the five aspects of instruction, the essential features have been presented in a summary chart.

During workshop sessions held in the summer of 1967, Project teachers wrote extensive reports concerning their reactions to Project activities; incidents reflecting pupil progress, interest or frustration; and innovations they had introduced into their teaching. Each teacher chose excerpts from his written materials to be presented in Chapter IV.

Chapter V reports briefly on the development of instructional materials, especially suited to the needs of bilingual children. Chapter VI is concerned with the initial tryout of techniques for obtaining reports concerning teacher and pupil activities, as well as feedback concerning teachers' reactions to the program. Teachers' reactions were obtained both through opinionaires, filled out during the school year, 1966-67.

In Chapter VII, Mr. Edward Moreno has summarized the ways in which two-way communication has been developed between Malabar School and the community. Parent participation in classroom activities has been a key element in this cooperative relationship, so essential to helping children achieve optimum progress toward the goal of becoming educated and effective bilingual adults. In Chapter VII also, a brief report is made concerning parents' responses to a letter (in both Spanish and English) sent by the school principal to Malabar parents. All replies are given *verbatim* in Appendix D. Charts summarizing first-grade test data, used in parents' meetings, are also presented.

Part Two is concerned with the procedures used and findings from the analysis of oral language base-line data. Chapter VIII supplements Chapters III and IV of the first interim report by reviewing the procedures used in the second-level analysis of typescripts from Oral Language Interviews with children in grades 1 through 3. Data on reliability of the new measures, both with respect to inter-rater reliability and reliability across interview situations, are presented.

In Chapter IX, the findings from this second-level analysis (of the complexity and variety of primary-grade children's oral langauge) are presented. The relationships of each language measure to developmental maturity (as reflected in grade-level assignment) and to reading achievement (as measured by standardized tests) are reported.

The findings for both first- and second-level analysis of language samples for preschool and kindergarten children are presented in Chapter X. Since the preschool children were volunteers and hence not representative of their age groups, there is a limited value in group comparisons. These data will have their chief value in providing a basis for comparisons with end-of-project data in the final report. However, selected language measures have been intercorrelated for the preschool groups; the findings from this study are reported and discussed.

Part III, "Summary and Recommendations," contains only one chapter which summarizes findings of the study and includes recommendations with respect to both the instructional program and further research.

PART ONE

ACTION IN THE CLASSROOM

CHAPTER II

PROJECT PHILOSOPHY AND ROLES OF PROJECT PARTICIPANTS

The Malabar Project reading program has encouraged a philosophical "about face" for those involved. Whether we recognize it or not, most of us have been primarily stimulus-response oriented in our educational philosophy. This program, however, emphasizes the Gestalt tradition, which looks upon learning as a process of organizing the field - a search for structure.

Project classrooms and lessons have been designed to facilitate the child's search for intellectual structure in the reading process. The result is a rigorous intellectual program placed in a humanistic setting. If one sees only the setting and not the intellectual rigor, one may get a false impression of permissiveness or inadequate organization. If, on the other hand, one sees only the intellectual rigor of the program but not the need for the humanistic setting, one may get the false impression that academic compulsiveness characterizes the program.

Examination of the summary chart reveals the intellectual rigor of the program. The academic pace as outlined in this chart is greatly accelerated in many respects over the typical program in the primary grades. The project classes are aiming for this accelerated rate of progress, although they have not yet achieved it.

Each of the five aspects of learning included in the summary chart supports the others. For example, the children must have massive amounts of instruction in phonics (conducted in a humanistic setting), primarily to develop and support their word-discrimination skills. Children must write prolifically, again in a humanistic setting, primarily in order to support their reading comprehension skills. They must learn to teach themselves if they are to use their recently acquired knowledge to maximum advantage beyond the confines of the teacher-directed lesson.

Reading is a highly creative act, as the child brings meanings from his own experiences to the printed page. Reading is also an intellectually rigorous act, requiring knowledge of syntax and the making of fine differentiations in word forms. Classroom instruction must provide for both the creative and the more intellectually rigorous aspects of the reading process, if children are to be successful in integrating their gains in reading competency into their functioning selves.

In the Malabar kindergarten and preschool, one can see the search for intellectual structure beginning earlier than is usually the case. We work on the assumption that readiness for reading can be developed.

Before entering first grade, almost all children learn to write their own names, write most of the letters of the alphabet and can count to 10. We use many of the Montessori materials because of their structural quality and their value for self-instruction; we use them consistently in a relaxed, humanistic way. From the preschool years throughout the grades, children are taught to teach themselves.

The search for intellectual structure in the primary grades concentrates on the five aspects of learning to read emphasized for this project. The children write their own stories,* beginning on the first day of first grade. From the first day on, the children undertake a rigorous course in phonics and other word discrimination skills. Only when the children have mastered these basic reading skills is special attention focused on an understanding of what they are reading. Up to that time, comprehension skills are emphasized both by the teacher's reading stories to the children and by the children's own writing. The stories children write involve words they use in everyday speech and are at an interest level appropriate for their age.

The five aspects of instruction, as shown on the accompanying chart, are interdependent and mutually supportive of intellectual development and ability to read. It is essential that each child maintain "horizontal balance" among the aspects of instruction as he progresses vertically down the chart. Any over-extension of one of the modes of instruction may occur at the expense of the others and may eventually result in the weakening of even the stressed mode. For example, some children in the Malabar Project may have learned word discrimination skills (aspect 3) at the expense of the development of skills in both phonics (#2) and story-writing (#1). The immediate effect of this over-emphasis appears to be a low ceiling on word discrimination itself since (1) a large number of phonics clues supportive of word discrimination have not been developed in phonics lessons, and (2) syntactical, morphemic and semantic clues, also supportive of word discrimination, have not been developed in story-writing lessons.

We now believe that the speed of a child's progress in any one area is of less significance than his balanced progress with respect to the different aspects of instruction.

If the child is predominantly Spanish-speaking, he may still participate in each of the five aspects of instruction. Since the work of the classroom is almost entirely individualized, such a child may proceed in his own language, using it as a bridge to English, and working with bilingual materials especially prepared for this project.

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*A story, as it is defined at Malabar, ranges from the one-word written holophrase produced by first graders in the first days of first grade to stories consisting of many pages of well-written sentences and paragraphs that third graders can produce.

CHART 1. SUMMARY CHART, MALABAR READING PROJECT

The Child Searches for Intellectual Structure through Five Aspects of Instruction

	(1) WRITING	(2) PHONICS	(3) WORD DISCRIMINATION	(4) COMPREHENSION	(5) SELF-TEACHING
PRESCHOOL & KINDERGARTEN CHILDREN	Scribbles. Writes own name.	Sees that his name is a word made from letters in sequence. Sees that letters have individual and identifiable sounds and graphic forms. Learns alphabet by rote.	Recognizes own name as having different configuration pattern from those of his friends' names. Recognizes familiar signs, labels, etc.	Enjoys being read to by adult. Talks with adult about content, vocabulary, etc. Understands his and his friends' names.	Teaches himself daily through independent activities.
CHILDREN READING PRE-PRIMERS #1-3	Needs to trace even short words many times before he can write them from memory. May ask to have adult help him finish a really long word, at this stage. Usually develops no story line; writes isolated words only.	Learns sounds of letters in isolation. Learns to read and write by sound two- or three-letter words (containing "short" sounds of vowels only). Learns to read and write by sound words of more than 3 letters, but still containing "short" sounds of vowels only.	Learns to distinguish between dissimilar written configuration patterns, e.g., "dog" and "car". Learns to distinguish between similar written configuration patterns, e.g, "dog" and "big".	Continues to enjoy having adult read to him. (He can only understand books written at his interest level by listening to them, since such books are still too difficult for him to read with understanding.) Understands words and syntax that he uses in his own stories.	Learns to conduct himself in the classroom independently of the teacher. Explores structure of materials. Begins to see value of learning during self-teaching time.

SUMMARY CHART, MALABAR READING PROJECT (continued)

	(1) WRITING	(2) PHONICS	(3) WORD DISCRIMINATION AND	(4) COMPREHENSION	(5) SELF-TEACHING
CHILDREN READING PRIMER	Learns to write words faster, but still needs to concentrate on short words. Begins to write short one-sentence stories.	Learns to read and write, by sound, words containing the simple digraphs and trigraphs.	Develops increasing accuracy and speed of identification within similar configuration patterns, e.g., "and" and "said".	Begins to enjoy content of what he is reading, but content is still subordinate to skill acquisition.	Begins to apply himself diligently to self-chosen, immediate learning tasks.
CHILDREN READING FIRST READER	Seldom has to trace a word pattern more than two or three times (even the more complicated ones). Increases in length of story-line.	Learns to read and write, by sound, words containing silent "e".	Discriminates minor differences, being confused only by very subtle differences in word patterns, e.g., "chicken" and "children".	Enjoys the content of what he is reading while, at the same time, continuing to develop his reading skills.	Shows ability to direct own learning by the completion of charted, short-term tasks.
CHILDREN READING SECOND READER	Has built up a repertoire of words he can write without help. Spells most words accurately without needing to trace. Writes stories of increasing length, sometimes with subdivisions or chapters.	Learns to read additional phonetic elements useful in sounding out words.	Having mastered the skills in "learning to read", child improves in speed, rhythm and quality of his performance.	Reads his own social studies, mathematics, science, poetry and music books. Uses the reading period to read for pleasure and information in the content areas. (No longer expects adult to read to him except as a "treat".)	Assumes long-term responsibility for planned learning by entering into a written "contract" with the teacher.

I. PROJECT PHILOSOPHY: AN OVERVIEW

Objectives of the Reading Program

The following objectives of the Project are as stated in the original proposal:

1. Reading. To help Mexican-American children become vocationally competent adults by teaching them to read at least up to grade level in the primary grades, thus laying a foundation for future success both in school and on the job.

2. Oral language development. To accelerate the functional oral language development of Mexican-American children age 3-9 years so that it will both serve as an adequate base for reading instruction and enable the child to communicate at optimum ability.

3. Parent participation. To guide parents in learning how to help their children develop academic skills so that the work of the school may be continued during many of the hours the child spends at home.

4. Individualized instruction. To offer these children the type of education defined as: "discriminated knowledge integrated into the functioning self," so that the time and effort they and their teachers put into their education will result in an informed citizenry.

5. Self-instruction. To help these children not only to learn but also assume the responsibility for their own academic growth so that in future years they will be able to teach themselves as academic and vocational horizons expand.

Frame of Reference

In order for the child to make optimum progress in the skills of reading, he must develop (1) the intellectual discipline essential to learning and employing reading skills efficiently, (2) the emotional strength to enable him to relate his life to the printed page, and (3) the physical self-control necessary in order to employ his mental and emotional abilities effectively. The teacher must give conscious attention to guiding his growth in each of these aspects of self-development, if he is to make optimum progress in reading.

Each of these facets of the reading program facilitates the function of the other two, no one taking precedence over the other. For example, physical control, necessary to the functioning of both emotional and intellectual discipline, is achieved more rapidly and in more stable form when the teacher also emphasizes emotional strength and intellectual discipline in the beginning days with each new class.

1. Physical Control through Classroom Organization: The organization of class activities must be at once so flexible and yet so controlled that the teachers can work with each child on a one-to-one basis, yet still maintain all classroom activities at an efficient operating level.

2. Emotional Strength: Since the teacher is dealing with each child on a one-to-one basis, it is necessary to be highly sensitive and responsive to his ego-structure. Everything one expresses either verbally or silently to a group is apt to be diluted or even ignored by individual members of the group; but everything one does or says to an individual on a one-to-one basis has great force, for better or worse.

3. Intellectual Discipline: Since the teacher is working with each child according to his intellectual needs, it is necessary that she know what these needs are. She must learn to recognize the signals of intellectual needs, interpret them correctly, and plan learning activities on the basis of her interpretations.

Individualized Instruction

The Malabar Project emphasizes individualized instruction in reading for the following six reasons:

1. Each child may learn to read at his own pace.
    a. Faster learners may learn as rapidly as they wish to go.
    b. Slower learners may go as slowly as they need to go in order to learn thoroughly. The child's intellectual integrity is protected because he no longer is forced to pretend to know when he really does not know, in order to "keep up" with his group.
    c. A child who learns at an uneven rate can work faster or more slowly when he needs to do so.
2. Privacy exists for the individual when he is reading with his teacher, as it can never exist when the child is reading in the "audience situation" typical of group reading.
3. Individual problems of learning are more efficiently dealt with by the teacher and child, as they can see them more accurately. They are not submerged in the problems of the group.

4. A more satisfying personal relationship develops between child and teacher.

5. Oral language development is facilitated through the child's conversations with the teacher or another adult.

6. More than one adult can instruct in the classroom at one time; hence, volunteers fit in easily into a situation in which every minute of their time can be invested to the advantage of the children.

Instructional Activities at the Different Stations

Although the teacher works individually with each child, he must always be in immediate touch with one-third of his class (Station I). The teacher must also provide the activities for another third of his class (Station II). The remaining third of the children have a wide choice of learning activities, as well as some degree of privacy for learning (Station III).

Station III	Station I	Station II
1/3 of class at center for self-teaching activities, i.e. word games and other self-teaching aids	Teacher 1/3 of class works individually with teacher at kidney-shaped table	1/3 of class (workbooks or other similar assigned learning activities)

The teacher allows each child to choose the group of children with which he wishes to work. Since the teacher works with each child individually, there is no need to ability-group the children for teaching convenience. Rotation of groups from one station to another is in a clock-wise direction upon signal from the teacher. During all reading periods, the teacher is in direct physical and mental contact with one-third of the class, while at the same time maintaining supervisory contact with the others.

Since each child in the class works for one-third of the total reading time at each of the three stations, he experiences close personal contact with his teacher for one-third of the time; he has supervisory contact only another one-third of the time. This rotation is repeated during each of the three periods devoted to: (1) writing, (2) phonics, and (3) word discrimination.

Station I

Individualized instruction does not mean isolated instruction. Each child should not have to meet each learning problem alone without the benefit of observing other children's experiences. Children can be part of a learning group, yet learn individually, as well as work independently. Each child works individually with the teacher as part of a group seated around a large table purchased especially for each Project classroom.

Each child in the room must receive his full share of time at Station I, as part of a learning group, with direct teacher supervision and guidance of his work. Each child should meet with one-third of the class at Station I for the full time alloted to the group (20 minutes is suggested for each sub-group for each of the three aspects of the program).

This station provides much more than physical accomodation for 10-12 children and the teacher. It also makes possible the intellectual stimulation of working together in a group. Here a child may sit and be caught up in the academic aura that hovers over the table as teacher and children strain for learning.

Each child is a member of a group, each of whom is working on his own book or story, pursuing knowledge intensively. The excitement of the pursuit, the delight in victory, the pain of defeat -- all these are part of learning and the learning will come more rapidly for each child when he sees that other children share these emotions with him although not necessarily at his level of learning.

Station II

At Station II, the children work on their workbooks or assigned worksheets individually, without direct supervision from the teacher. Station II activities might be: (1) checking back through their phonics books to review old material, (2) practicing handwriting, (3) working on spelling lists (only if they have completed phonics program), (4) filing words, (5) checking on mastery of old words, (6) illustrating stories, (7) copying stories, (8) making a cover for a book of stories, (9) continuing writing stories started at Station I (if the teacher judges the child to be ready for independent work of this type).

The children's work at Station II is "spot-checked" only. The children should understand (1) why their assigned work is important and (2) why the teacher can do no more than "spot-check" their work.

Talking in an exchange of ideas, tutoring, etc., is encouraged at this station. Children should understand the difference between helping each other with "rough spots" and having someone do your work. If a child has leaned too heavily on his classmates, the teacher will notice it when she checks on individual children's learning at Station I. The child should not think he is doing the work "for the teacher" but to reinforce his own learning, i.e. working "for himself."

Station III

At Station III, a "change of pace" is provided. The children may: (a) enjoy the room library from which books may be chosen for free reading or just browsing, (b) use intellectual games ("Spill and Spell," "Anagrams," "phonology"), (c) experiment with a variety of individualized self-instructional materials.

Each station can be self-sufficient. Materials may be issued and stored by the children themselves. Although emphasis is placed on individualized instruction, the teacher need not hesitate to address the class as one group or to instruct several small groups (based on common needs), whenever necessary.

Scheduling Instructional Program

Writing, Phonics, Word Discrimination, Comprehension, and Self-Instruction constitute the five major aspects of the instructional program in reading. This reading program should utilize 80 per cent of the total instructional time until the children are reading at grade level as measured by standardized reading achievement tests. Teachers are urged to give equal emphasis to (1) writing, (2) phonics, and (3) word discrimination skills. Self-instructional ability is the concern of both teacher and child throughout the program. Understanding what is read is the concern of both teacher and child from the First Reader level on.

Writing

At Station I, during writing time, the teacher supplies the children with the words they need and checks word boxes for accuracy of filing. The children write their stories. The children's words should be written on individual slips of paper or 3 x 5 cards, so they can be filed in boxes. They are not written in "dictionaries" because dictionaries do not enable the child to handle the words, sort them, categorize them, etc., as do the filing boxes.

All children write stories of their own choosing. For older children, these stories may be long stories or a series of stories that take several weeks to complete.

Phonics

At Station I, during phonics time, the teacher checks each child on his knowledge of phonics and shows him what he needs to learn next and how to learn it. Other children at the table practice their phonics.

Studying the spelling lists should be deferred until the children have completed the phonics program. As soon as each child has completed his phonics program, however, he may well spend phonics time learning the spelling lists individually and checking upon any phonics he may not know or may have forgotten.

Word Discrimination

At Station I, during the reading time, the teacher checks each child's learning of vocabulary on flash cards, giving the child words he needs to learn. The teacher then has each child read for her as she checks on his reading speed and comprehension. While the teacher is doing this, each child at the table reads hiw own book, asking the teacher for words he does not know.

II. THE ROLES OF PROJECT CLASSROOM PARTICIPANTS

The Administrator's Role*

In a cooperative college-and-public-school experimental program designed to explore classroom innovation, the roles of the teachers, administrators, and the college personnel are truly complementary and overlapping. Free exchange of ideas among pupils, parents, teachers, and directors is absolutely essential if the intellectual *integrity of the experimentation is to be preserved.*

In a school in which instructional change is occurring, the questions most frequently asked of the administrator were: "How do you change teachers?" and "How do you evaluate teachers?"

Because of the individualized self-actualizing nature of the philosophy of the experimental program, the first question was impossible to answer in the context of the words "you change."

Therefore, the administrative function had to be reinterpreted not as a directive to change teachers, but one in which the total environment was modified in whatever manner was necessary to encourage the greatest amount of exploration, with whatever changes in teaching that might ensue. In our school, the total environment was defined as including the administrator and director as resource people, and the teaching staff as the creative energy in the development of a free and intellectually stimulating climate.

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*This section was condensed from a talk given by Mrs. Jacqueline Hartwick, Principal, Malabar Street School.

At Malabar, the accent on change centered around developing a primary reading program which was based upon a cognitive theory of learning with an individualized methodology. The model of administrative action had to be consistent with that philosophical framework.

In addition, the educational framework for the teaching of reading was that "reading is a process of making discriminative responses," with emphasis placed on individualized choice-making and self-direction. In order to be consistent and effective, the administrative policies and procedures had to follow this philosophy in action. (It is as impractical to assume that you can indoctrinate self-actualization as it is that you can develop passive conformity by encouraging independent decision making.) Each individual teacher was treated as a person capable of making "discriminative responses" and who was responsible for setting his own learning tasks. Materials were provided without "guidelines" for their use, but with close and immediate availability of resources and resource personnel. These resources included tapes and slides of classroom activities, as well as monographs and textbooks on language development, learning theory, and Mexican culture.

An even more essential ingredient in a situation conducive to change was that teachers develop the security, confidence and freedom necessary for exploration. This security was built by the administrator's communicating complete faith in the individual. This meant providing conditions of safety and free choice, with minimal protectiveness. Gibran tells us that the teacher "gives not of his wisdom but rather of his faith and lovingness." One of the greatest tests of the administrator's faith in the faculty was in allowing the teachers freedom to err. Honest formulation and testing of hypotheses, so essential to experimentation, had to be predicated on all of us being secure enough to consider failure as an opportunity to learn rather than as self defeating.

In our past experience, most of us tended to be more self protective than self critical. This basic conflict between "defensive forces and growth trends," as Maslow states, is directly related to "safety and free choice." The leadership was geared toward an approach in which trying out new ideas was encouraged, a person could fail without being a failure, and the normally negative reactions to the "new" were considered to be healthy expressions of caution necessary to grappling with the unknown.

"Not allowing people to go through their pain, and protecting them from it, may turn out to be a kind of overprotection, which in turn implies a certain lack of respect for the integrity and the intrinsic nature and the future development of the individual," Maslow states. If a teacher can actually experience the confidence that comes with the administrator's having real faith in him and his choices, a necessary prerequisite has been established for action in the classroom designed to work with pupils in that same manner. Since you teach what you are, a fearful, dependent teacher without self confidence is not ready to explore a world of new ideas and activities. The teacher's fear or courage is inevitably transmitted to children and will affect even their approach to the task of learning.

Changes in the teachers' instruction occurred in a highly individualized manner. There were at least three ways in which teachers seemed to approach innovation after they had decided to try something new; i.e., (1) changing the physical environment; (2) developing an expanded educational background; and (3) reevaluating the personal relationships involved in teaching. As an example of the first approach, one teacher started by moving furniture around, bringing in new teaching materials to try, and removing unused equipment and materials. One teacher who illustrates the second approach started reading the background textbooks and discussing instruction at length with the college personnel. One teacher initially changed her approach and manner with her pupils. Each of these three approaches was appropriate for the individual involved and provided an enriched beginning stage for classroom innovation as well as for exchange of ideas.

The evaluation of instruction also had to be modified from the more traditional supervisory techniques for improving teaching. The theoretically "ideal" lesson plan (with its framework of time, subject matter and methodology that had been used as a tool for planning and evaluation) had to be replaced by individualized, on-the-spot evaluations of pupil performance by the teacher, with the administrators serving as the resource persons for information, support and materials.

Teachers are beginning to take pride in their own ability in self evaluation, as shown by increasingly frequent statements to the effect that "This did not work," "I'm going to try this," "What do you think?," "I prefer not to try that," "This is my problem," "I've discovered why this works." These statements contrast with the usual teacher responses of "What do you want me to do?," "Is it alright if I ...?" As teachers, administrators and parents become self assured enough to be honestly critical of themselves, they begin to show evidence of confidence and self esteem which, in turn, offers children models of discriminative cognitive behavior.

One of the most encouraging signs of progress is the changing role of the project teachers, as exemplified by the feeling, so apparent in the project classrooms, that children and teachers equally share a desire for the pursuit of knowledge.

The Teacher's Role

"The healthy child reaches out to the environment in wonder and interest ... to the extent that he feels safe enough to dare ... if he can choose those experiences which are (then) validated by the experience of delight, he can return to the experience, repeat it, savor it to the point of satiation ... he then shows a tendency to go on to more complex, richer experiences ... such experiences not only mean moving on, but have a feed-back effect on the self in the feeling of certainty, of capability, mastery, self-trust and self-esteem." (Maslow, 1962).

By encouraging a high degree of pupil exploration from the preschool on, Malabar teachers provide the basis for children to reach out for richer and more complex experiences in reading and language development.

For this kind of activity to result in significant learning that the child can integrate into his functioning self, the teacher must provide the freedom in the classroom for the child to explore his whole field of communication. When the child's freedom to explore becomes mere drifting, he may have found satiation at his level, and not know how to proceed to the next level. The teacher helps him orient to this new level by providing new learning goals and new learning tasks.

The ideal state of the human organism may not be homeostatic equilibrium, but one of tension arising from interest in new ideas and new experiences. The healthy child "has a tendency to go on to richer, more complex experiences."

The teacher's role, then, is that of guide and facilitator, helping the child achieve competency at each level he embarks upon, so that he may later feel free to move on to the next level of competency. She will, at the same time, know what level is awaiting him, and will have materials ready for him so that he may have the tools of exploration at hand when he needs them.

The teacher will not force the child to a new level before he has explored his present level sufficiently; for to do so would be to induce artificial elevation of some aspect of reading achievement based on an inadequate foundation. Uneven progress can result in an unstable, poorly integrated field of learning. Instead of recognizing the source of the difficulty, some teachers may have emphasized "motivation" and "stimulation," rather than improving the child's foundation for the next level of instruction. They also may have resorted to a "repeat-after-me" approach which did all the organization for the child, all the thinking for him, and all the responding for him. In the Project, we attempt to avoid these alternatives.

The Parent's Role

Parents play a vital role in the Malabar classrooms. Their presence and their individualized help are needed during the school day in the preschool and primary grades for at least these three reasons:

1. Providing emotional support to their own children and the children of their friends and neighbors.

2. Introducing an additional intellectual element into the school program. When the child sees his mother or father (his most significant adults) endorse the intellectual content of the reading program by their approving physical presence, he, too, can accept the learning tasks as significant. As a consequence, he can devote all his intellectual energies to the accomplishment of these tasks.

3. Serving as a much-needed additional teacher in the classroom. The parents are needed to help the children learn facts, to be sure. But they fill a much more significant function than that. One of the basic necessities for the optimum learning of reading is adequate oral language, which develops most effectively in conversations between the child and a significant adult. Individualized instruction affords each child the opportunity to converse with a significant adult. The more opportunities a child has for such conversation, the better; hence, the more parents who come into the classroom to work with children on an individual basis, the better. The use of self-teaching materials affords a natural situation in which parents can help.

   Since the work is done on an individual basis, no parent need be versed in techniques of working with groups of children. Each parent can help one child at a time much as one would teach in one's own home.

The Child's Role

Children assume an active intellectual role in the Malabar classrooms, since they are encouraged to assume responsibility for their own learning. This represents a higher order of learning than mere memorization or mechanical responding to stimuli. From the very beginning, project children must learn to make intellectual choices. They must choose what book they need to read, what stories they need to write, what words they need to learn and what sounds they need to know. Only when they have learned to make such choices can they begin to be able to integrate knowledge into their functioning self. Unless a child makes these choices efficiently and uses his newly acquired knowledge, he will "forget" much of what he has "learned." An example of such "forgetting" is the child who spells every word on his spelling test correctly, yet cannot write a literate letter to his grandmother.

When the Malabar child works directly with his teacher, he not only learns subject matter content, and methods of learning, but he finds guidance in making these vital intellectual choices.

The child leaves his daily conferences with the teacher having made decisions concerning what he has learned successfully, what he needs to learn next, what he needs to do to learn it, and how he feels about learning.

CHAPTER III

FIVE ASPECTS OF THE MALABAR PROJECT INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

In this chapter, each of the five aspects of the Project instructional program will be presented in some detail. For each aspect, a statement of the rationale will be followed by a delineation of procedures and a summary of ways in which the child's search for intellectual structure is facilitated by this aspect of instruction.

I. WRITING

Rationale

An adaptation of Fernald writing is suggested as a starting point in individualized instruction for the following reasons:

1. It incorporates a greater number of structural elements than do the other two methods.
2. When the child initiates each step, he cannot be inadvertently forced beyond the level of his structural oral language ability.
3. The danger of excessive rote learning is reduced to a minimum.
4. The child finds independence from the teacher more rapidly by this method than by either of the others.
5. It is an especially effective technique by which the child can build up his powers of discrimination.
6. The child gives of his own ideas rather than constantly absorbing the ideas of others, and thus uses creativity in the learning-to-read process.

Procedures

The child follows a sequence of steps in his individualized writing program.

1. The child decides what to write. The teacher does no "motivating" at all but says, "This is writing time."
2. The child asks the teacher for the first word he does not know but needs for his story.
3. The teacher writes the word for him on a slip of paper.

4. The child traces word with his finger (not pencil) as many times as he (not the teacher) decides he needs to trace it, saying the word aloud as he does so.

5. The child turns paper over and writes it across the short end of the slips without looking back at the original copy. During the writing activity, the child should trace the word with intent to reproduce from memory. Copying the word is not as effective since copying can occur with only a minimum of thinking. Tracing the word and reproducing it from a mental image seems to "force" the word into the child's intellectual memory system. The child has to form a mental image of the word, which he does not have to do when he copies. It is essential that the child reproduce the word from beginning to end from memory without "peeking."

6. The child checks what he has written, letter by letter, with the original copy. If the word is incorrect, the child merely folds the end of the paper over and retraces the word until he thinks he can write it correctly from start to finish. He checks it again. If it is still not correct, he repeats the process until he can write it correctly. The child will learn the word faster by tracing if he knows: (a) the sounds of the letters; (b) the forms of the letters; (c) the syllabification of the word; and (d) the sounds produced by special letter combinations. The speed with which the child learns the word he is tracing will be a clue to the teacher of the child's increasing ability to read. This is such a fine clue, that the teacher can hardly deprive herself of it by letting the child write somewhere in the room where the teacher cannot observe it. Therefore, Malabar teachers work with small writing groups. Only those children who are highly competent write unsupervised, and then only for part of their total writing time.

7. When the child finds that he has written the word correctly, he gives the paper to the teacher, who puts it out of sight, while the child writes the word in his story.

8. After the word has been written on his paper, the child retrieves his word slip from the teacher and files it alphabetically in his word box.

9. The child goes on to the next word he needs in his story that he doesn't know. Children do not need to trace new words if they have advanced to the stage where one look at the word is sufficient.

10. The child's story is then typed for him by an adult. Some teachers complete the stories of those children who have just a few words left before the end of the period. As the children become more advanced, however, it will be possible to let them bring their unfinished stories to Station II or III and complete them during the next session. In this way, the children may extend their stories in length, since they are no longer limited by the amount they can write in one session.

The children will remember what needs to be written in order to complete the story. If they cannot remember, they can tear up what has been written and start fresh. Teachers will often observe children re-reading what they have written to pick up the intonational flow and meaning so they will know what they want to have come next. Many processes (word matching, phrase matching and translating one's own written words into oral speech) are all embraced in this one natural act.

An opportunity should be provided for the children to collect their stories and make books of them. The stories are collected until an agreed-upon number (usually not less than six) is reached, whereupon the child may put a cover on them, staple them together, and illustrate them. Materials for book-making are set out on the writing table, so that the children may make these books themselves. The children should enjoy the fruits of their labors and should have a sense of "finish" to their product. The books may then be left at school for others to read, taken home, or presented as gifts.

The Child's Search for Structure through Writing

The child makes the choice of what to write. In order to do so, the child must search his life experiences to find something to write about. Sometimes, he cannot do so, and must borrow a story line from some other source - another child's story, a story he has already heard, the stories or characters in the basal readers, etc. Teachers will accept these stories without comment; however, they will note with joy the first time the child has sufficient confidence and ability to write something that is entirely the result of his search through his own life to find story content. This is evidence to the teacher of tremendous growth on the part of the child.

The child chooses the words that he needs in his story. The child must search through the words in his vocabulary that he needs in order to express his own thoughts. This leads directly to both vocabulary strengthening and enrichment. It leads, also, to a resolving of vocabulary confusion, "to," "too," and "two," for example, or "gonna" and "going to."

The child chooses the sounds that he needs in order to write the words. Although phonics, per se, is not part of the Fernald system, it actually plays a large role. The child begins to structure the sounds at the beginning of the words, and in order to write the words from memory, he finds that he must also pay attention to the middle and ending sounds in words. A child will often make very scholarly remarks about the phonetic construction of the words the teacher gives him, such as "Are you sure there's no 'f' in 'telephone'?"

The child searches for the structure of letters and words. The child seeks to improve the formation of his letters, the spacing of the letters within words and the separation of words from each other by spaces. In the beginning, the child's attempt to structure may be rigid and overdetailed (e.g., he attempts to copy exactly any irregularity in the teacher's writing).

As the child becomes more familiar with the structures, he can tolerate deviations more easily. In time, the teachers will note that the children are now "really writing," i.e., their writing has developed a slant and has become almost automatic.

The child chooses the sequence of words he will use to write his story. At first, the child's "story-line" is obscure indeed; random words, apparently selected for no reason at all, will decorate his paper in no discernible sequence or form. Gradually, a sequence of some kind appears, although it may not always be the right to left, line-by-line sequence so familiar to adults. Later, the child will tend to write whole sentences and may even feel the need to use periods. By second grade, he may even be writing with phrases and clauses; and some of the simpler elements of punctuation may be introduced individually.

The child develops quite a file of words, and he will be able to write a great deal away from the teacher. At this level, the teacher will urge him to write as much as he can when he is away from her so that he will get all the practice possible within the school day and will grow accustomed to academic independence.

The child searches for structure in teaching himself, e.g., the child will discover how many times he needs to trace the word before he learns it. The child observes how much he has learned by himself, through mastery of words he himself has chosen. The feedback effect on the child as a person of dignity and worth, and his ability to accomplish intellectual tasks of the highest order, result in a sense of intellectual satisfaction that would alone justify the use of this method.

CHART 2

THE SEARCH FOR INTELLECTUAL STRUCTURE THROUGH WRITING

LEVELS	STORY WRITING	SELF-CONCEPT
Preschool - Kindergarten	Scribbles. Writes own name.	I am a person who handles paper and pencil. I can write. I can write my own name. I like my name. I am a person who likes to write.
Children reading pre-primers (1, 2, & 3)	Needs to trace even short words many times before he is able to write them correctly. May eventually need adult help to finish a really long word at these early stages. Usually, no story-line. Child writes isolated words only.	I can write about anything I want. I can learn to write many interesting words. I understand the meaning of everything I choose to write. I am glad I am a person who knows how to write so well.
Children reading primer	Learns words faster, but still needs to check details of even comparatively short words. Begins to write short one-sentence "stories."	I can write more and more every day without asking any adult how to do it. Other words are in my own private word box. Because I have always been a person who is interested in words, I am particularly interested in the special words that are in my word box that I have chosen. I can also sound out a great many words that I do not know, or that are not in my word box. I can write real stories now.
Children reading 1st Reader	Learns even quite complicated patterns quickly and accurately.	I am a person who can write a very great deal without asking other people how to spell the words. I am very proud that I am a person with this great power. I can write long stories.

LEVELS	STORY WRITING	SELF-CONCEPT
Children reading 2nd Reader	Child has only to look at relatively complicated words in order to spell them immediately without tracing. Child has built up a repertoire of words he can write alone. Needs to trace only a relatively few really hard words. Child writes stories of several pages or chapters.	Since I am a person who can write real books myself, I realize that real people write books. I am very much interested in the people who write the books I read, for they, like me, are writers.

II. PHONICS

Rationale

The understanding of the phonetic principles of our language is an immediate aid to the child in learning to read. Because it is of so much immediate aid, phonics strengthens the child's confidence in structure and, therefore, it strengthens his will to seek out evidence of structure.

The phonetic structure of the language offers the child who is seeking structure in the reading process the best "blueprint to learning" that the English language affords.

Learning words beyond the primer level without the aid of phonetic principles may interfere with the retention of previously learned vocabulary. Without an understanding of the phonetic structure of the language, new learned vocabulary may merely replace old vocabulary and not represent additional words learned.

Since phonics not only helps the child read new words but also helps him resolve confusions in previously learned vocabulary, it ultimately frees him almost entirely from dependence upon someone else while he is reading. Consequently, he can not only read more in the same amount of time, but he feels better about himself as an independent learner.

Unless independence in using phonics begins to develop in the 1st-grade year, the child will not have developed the necessary phonics skills to support his mastery retention of the sight vocabulary found in the primer and 1st reader levels. This program introduces the most frequently used sounds of the letters first for this reason.

Procedures

Following the phonetic structural outline presented in the accompanying chart, the teacher:

1. Asks child to write the word by sound.

2. Asks child to read the word by sound.

3. Steps 1 and 2 above are review and drill on known elements. If a child is unsure of the materials, the teacher should re-teach it to him then and there, and leave him to relearn it himself. On the other hand, if the child is quick and sure in his responses, the teacher should go on to the next step, i.e., introducing a new letter or combination of letters or applying known principles at a higher level of discrimination. For example, "pan-pin" represents a lower level of auditory discrimination than "pen-pin," although the principle involved (change of medial vowel) is the same.

4. Steps 1, 2, and 3 above should constitute the basic daily lesson in phonics until all the phonetic elements in the material have been thoroughly learned.

The simplicity of the lessons relieves both child and teacher from the time-consuming effort of mastering several learning techniques. Monotony is avoided because of the constant push toward intellectual growth provided by the instant addition of new phonetic information as soon as the child is ready for it.

If a change of pace is desired, however, the teacher may employ a little of the 20-minute period reserved for phonics instruction to play an intellectual, phonics blackboard game, with the total group. A change of pace may also be obtained by forming temporary groups on the basis of intellectual need. For example, "I see that some of you do not work easily with 'th.' I am going to go over it with Mary and Alfred. Who else would like to join the group for this morning only?"

5. The child and teacher keep track of the child's progress by noting:

   (a) where the child is working in phonics book 1-4 of the Malabar phonics series,* or

   (b) where the child is in his own phonics book that follows the first four books.

6. Other children work on learning letters or letter combinations (in words) that the teacher has given them to learn (either that day or on previous days).

The Child's Search for Structure Through Phonics

Phonics instruction can be reduced to the presentation of just another in a series of disconnected items to be memorized. Unless the teacher is convinced of the structural value of phonetic learning and communicates its significance to children, time spent in teaching phonetic rules may be almost entirely wasted.

1. The child searches for the structural relationships between sounds and between letters. Although the child has been uttering sounds all his life, this action is now brought to the level of consciousness, and related to the graphic representation of specific sounds.

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*Currently being developed in the Malabar Project and described in Chapter V.

2. The child searches for structural interrelationships of sounds within words. The sequence of learning these relationships is determined by the teacher rather than the child (Chart 3), in order to avoid the confusions that a haphazard sequence might produce. However, the pace at which each child progresses through the sequence must be his own determination. The child's determination of the speed with which he learns phonics is essential to long-run efficiency, since each individual will gain his own insight at each level of the structure at a different speed and in a different rhythm.

CHART 3

THE SEARCH FOR INTELLECTUAL STRUCTURE THROUGH PHONICS

	PHONICS	SELF-CONCEPT
Preschool and Kindergarten Children	Learns that (1) his name is a word, (2) words are made up of letters, (3) letters have individual identifiable sounds and corresponding graphic forms. Learns alphabet orally by rote. Recognizes names of individual letters by sight and sound.	I am a person with a name. My name is important to me and to other people. I can hear my name. I can say my name. Other people can say and hear my name. I can write my name and read it. Other people can write and read my name. Letters form my name. I like the letters in my name. I am a person who likes letters. There are many letters. Some of them are not in my name. Some of these letters that are not in my name are in the names of my friends. Because I am already a person who likes letters and knows many of them, I am interested in the names of my friends. Letters can be arranged in an alphabet. It is easy to find these letters if you know the alphabet. Since I am a person who likes letters, I like to know the alphabet.
Children Reading First Pre-Primer	Learns sounds of letters (in isolation and (2) in initial position of words. The letters * are learned in the following order: ltirmfn ocashed puwgbj vyzxgk	Letters make up other words besides names. Because I am a person who is interested in all of these letters of the alphabet, I am a person who is interested in the words these letters make. I can hear the way they sound at the beginning of words.

*Letters have been given in this order because (1) distinguishing between the sounds of these letters is relatively easy, (2) distinguishing between the form of these letters is relatively easy, (3) these letters are relatively easy to write, (4) these letters are most quickly useful in writing large numbers of simple words using the "short" sound of the letters, (5) these letters are the ones on which the children may most profitably work independently from the beginning of the program with minimum chance of error.

Children Reading Second Pre-Primer

PHONICS	SELF-CONCEPT
Reads and writes by sound two- and three-letter words, changing initial letter. EXAMPLE: bat get pit lot rut cat wet fit not nut	Now that I know so much about letters (their shapes, names, and sounds and which come at the beginning of words), I can even write, by sound, words which I may not have seen in print.
Reads and writes by sound two- and three-letter words (short vowels only), changing terminal letter. EXAMPLE: can bed fig sob tug cap bet fin sop tub	Since I already know so much about the way lettter make up words, I can even sound out some words that I have never seen before. Because I am a person who has long been interested in words and letters, I am very pleased to see that I can sound out more and more of the words I see in print.
Reads and writes by sound two-and three-letter words (short vowels only), changing both initial and terminal letters. EXAMPLE: sad let nip rot lug lap den fit hop jut	I can write many words I have never seen before without asking anybody how to do it. I am greatly reassured to sense my growing independence and power as a learner.
Reads and writes by sound three-letter words (short vowels only), changing medial letter. EXAMPLE: bad let rid top jut bed lot rod tip jet	
Reads and writes by sound three-letter words (short vowels only), changing all the letters at will. EXAMPLE: mad not bud rob but him pet cup lip hen	

	PHONICS	SELF-CONCEPT
Children Reading Third Pre-Primer	Reads and writes by sound words having more than three letters, adding letters in terminal positions first (short vowels only). EXAMPLE: fat net lit lot rut fast nest list lost rust Reads and writes by sound (short vowels only), words having more than three letters, adding letters in initial positions. EXAMPLE: tap led lip rot cub trap bled slip trot club Reads and writes words by sound (short vowels only) having many extra letters added in any position. EXAMPLE: stamp print stunt drift west golf plant plot	Now my world of words extends to include words that have a great many letters in them. Since I am a person who has long been interested in letters and words, this is an exciting discovery. I find that I am more powerful than I thought I was.
Children Reading Primer	Reads and writes words by sound in which some letters combine to form digraphs and trigraphs (1) in initial or terminal position, this ship chat sing them shop chip ring (2) in all positions. with dish within that shed chanting	Now I see that the world of words is indeed a complicated and sometimes confusing world. Since I am such a competent person who has long been interested in letters and words, and who has had great success in handling them, I can also handle this new dimension, although it is very difficult.

	PHONICS	SELF-CONCEPT
Children Reading First Reader	Learns to add silent "e" at end of word to form new word. EXAMPLE: mad pin not cut made pine note cute Continued experience with silent "e" keeping vowel constant but introducing more complexity into rest of word. EXAMPLE: plane ride stone tune flame rifle slope prune Interchangeable use of all other previously learned letters and letter combinations. EXAMPLE: trumpet stray cure throne twine stone spine swinging	This indeed is a puzzle. I find that I cannot always take the letters in a word in sequence when sounding out a word. I must jump to the end of the word and then back to the middle when sounding out some words. It is almost enough to destroy my new-found faith in the reliability of sound sequence of letters in words. I have found in past experience with letters and words that, although technical problems are sometimes momentarily disturbing, I am able to solve them. For as long as I can remember, I have been a person who is interested in letters and words, as well as a person who is capable of handling them. I have already noticed in my reading how many words have "e" on the end. I am eager to learn the rules that govern them.
Children Reading Second Reader	From this point on, letters are presented in combinations useful for sounding out words only. These are presented in decreasing order of frequency of occurrence in reading. EXAMPLE: 1. sail say sea boat claim pray each coat 2. asked pinned landed jumped sailed wanted 3. out how shout down	Now that I have understood silent "e", I find that I am a person who can understand even very complicated and confusing graphic representations of sound patterns in words. Any other graphic representations of sound patterns will, of course, be very easy for a person like me to understand and remember.

Children Reading Second Reader--Continued

	PHONICS	SELF-CONCEPT
4.	saw stew slow bawl new hellow	
5.	car her bird word burn farm father stir worm turn	
6.	sang sing song sung bang string long strung	
7.	all sank sink bunk wall spank pink sunk	
8.	too book love cool hook come	
9.	mild most find bolt cold child host hind colt told	
10.	sigh flight weigh night might eight	
11.	queen quack squirt quick quake squeeze	
12.	he no by me go my	
13.	boil boy soil joy	
14.	telephone should thought elephant would brought	
15.	cigar circle nice dance cent cinch	
16.	know knight knock knit	

III. WORD DISCRIMINATION

Rationale

Organized drill in word discrimination is suggested as the third mode of instruction in reading for the following reasons:

1. The child must learn to discriminate among printed words and groups of words accurately and rapidly, or he will never achieve the reading speed necessary for adequate comprehension.

2. The ability to discriminate among increasingly similar words must not be left to the learning resulting from just reading the textbook. It must be carefully developed with the child through the use of vocabulary flash-cards and reinforced by the child's frequent rereading of the text.

3. The ready recognition of words isolated on flash-cards must result from the development of the child's powers of pattern discrimination rather than his power to remember the word from (a) context clues (as when it is clearly illustrated by the picture accompanying the story), (b) syntactical clues (as when it is imbedded in a frequently repeated phrase), or (c) physical-setting clues (as when it is remembered as the last word before you turn the page). The use of flash-cards makes it impossible to depend on the aforementioned clues.

Procedures

1. Open books shelves in the classroom are stocked with both basal readers and supplementary reading books. Each child seated at Station 1 selects the book he needs to read from the ones the teacher has provided on the reading shelf. These books will consist of the basal readers appropriate for the reading levels in that particular class, as well as appropriate supplementary books. For example, in the first days of B1, the only book on the reading shelf will be the first pre-primer, but by the third grade, the shelves will contain the 3_1 readers of that basal series and, in addition, copies of all the previous books in that series, or any other series, as well as any supplementary books at the 2_2 level and below.

2. Each child selects pages in the book to be read and starts to read them to himself, either aloud or silently. The child will usually choose a book and page that is consistent with his level of competency. Sometimes, however, a child will not. On the basis of her knowledge of the child and his learning problems, the teacher can make a wise decision as to whether he should continue with his choice. If the teacher feels that the child still must read from the basal reading series only, she will help determine which book the child will read.

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3. When the child comes to a word he does not know, he puts his finger under the word, lowers his book so the teacher can see it, and waits until she supplies the word.

4. The teacher, in the meantime, has started to work individually with one of the children at the table. She works with each child in turn, as follows:

   (a) She drills him on the flash-cards containing the new vocabulary he is currently encountering in the basal text. From the primer level on, the child must show instant recognition of all the words in his packet of 20-35 words on three separate days before he should proceed to the next section of his book.

   (b) She listens to him read in the section of the book where the new vocabulary is located. From the primer level on, the child must read smoothly, missing less than three words (exclusive of proper names) per page, before he should move on to the next section of his book.

   (c) If the child is at the 1st reader level or above, the teacher talks with him about the story, making sure that he understands both the meaning of the new words he is learning and the meaning of the story as a whole.

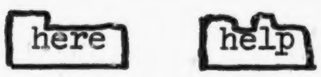
5. The teacher keeps track of each child's progress and learning problems in a notebook or card file provided for this purpose. The child may have access to the notes the teacher has made about him at any time. These notes should contain only encouraging statements concerning the specifics of his intellectual progress.

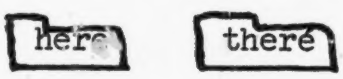
The Child's Search for Structure through Word Discrimination

Each child will probably discover structural regularities during his own idiosyncratic exploration of reading materials. Therefore, the teacher should reinforce his attempts and confirm his discoveries, rather than to direct this search. In general, however, children will notice:

1. Differences in length of word. For example: "something" is a long word. "Is" is a short word. Children who have noted this difference may not remember which is which. Therefore, confusion of "is" for "something" may reveal a child who is working on this type of clue.

2. Differences in gross shape of words. For example: "here" and "help" are rarely confused at this stage of reading development, since the gross shape is dissimilar. But "here" and "there" are often confused at this level, since the gross shape of these two words are similar.





3. Specific differences within words. Even when the child no longer discriminates by gross configuration pattern alone, and can readily discriminate between such similar patterns as "sit" and "sat," he may still need to refine his ability to discriminate between slight graphic differences within words. For example: He may confuse "her" and "hen," since the graphic difference is very slight indeed, although the phonemic difference is significant.

CHART 4

THE SEARCH FOR INTELLECTUAL STRUCTURE THROUGH WORD DISCRIMINATION

LEVELS	WORD DISCRIMINATION	SELF-CONCEPT
Preschool and Kindergarten Children	Recognizes graphic form of his own name and the names of his friends.	I am a person with a name that can be written. My written name can be put on my lunch bag, my toys and my chair to show which is mine. I am a person who can read my name. I am a person who likes to see my name written on things. I am a person who can read the names of some of my friends when I see them on their things.
Children Reading Pre-Primer 1, 2 & 3	Guesses wildly, e.g., "dog" for "car," based on neither semantic nor configuration patterns. Confuses words within semantic pattern, e.g., "dog" and "cat." Confuses words within similar configuration patterns, e.g., "dog" and "big." Reads exceedingly slowly, word by word.	Since I am a person who can read my own name and the names of my friends, I can try to read many other words. They often look very much alike, though, and I often get mixed up.
Children Reading Primer	Increases speed and accuracy of identification within similar configuration patterns. Example: "and-said." Combines words into short semantic units. Example: "said Jane," "to the house." Shows tension and concentration in behavior. Shows wide variation in tempo of reading. Tends to loud vocal reading.	Now I can see that most words really do not look as much alike as I thought. I am the kind of person who can read many words. I can read much faster than I used to read.
Children Reading 1st Reader	Confuses only very similar patterns, such as "chicken-children." Combines words into phrases and clauses. Now reads with expression. Often varies tempo of reading to meet demands of the story. Shows decreasing evidence of physical concomitants of reading (e.g., evidence of bodily tension).	I already know how to read a great many words. I am a person who can read almost everything.

LEVELS	WORD DISCRIMINATION	SELF-CONCEPT
Children Reading 2nd Reader	Discriminates rapidly among similar word patterns. Reads silently, not even moving lips. Reads fairly fluently, his eye often sweeping across whole line with no apparent regressions. Bodily movements cease. Rarely makes errors.	Now I can read accurately and rapidly. I am a person who can read easily.

IV. COMPREHENSION

Rationale

Comprehension is like happiness; all our travail is to attain it, yet it is more a by-product of skill learning rather than a goal that can be pursued directly. Since comprehension lies primarily in that still little-understood area of concept development, we cannot determine with any sense of confidence how a child learns to understand what he reads. We know he must bring relevant experience to the printed page if he is to take new experiences therefrom. We know that those children who have been read stories appear to comprehend what they themselves read better than children who have not. But we do not know whether a child becomes a good reader because he listened to stories being read to him, because he had his language developed while he was talking with an adult about the book, or because he was part of a family which was so interested in books that they read them to their young.

Until we know these things, we must continue to read to him, to talk with him about what he has read and as a school family, to communicate our interest in books and reading.

Procedure

The project teachers read to their children at least once a day, choosing the readings from all areas of the curriculum (social studies, poetry, science, etc.). Whenever possible, other adults also read to the children. Whenever possible, children discuss the story with the adult, thus making a further contribution to their comprehension skills. From the 1st reader level on, the teacher also questions the children about what they have read.

The school supplies each classroom with a wide range of reading materials (with respect to subject matter and difficulty) from which each child may choose his supplementary reading. The school also demonstrates its interest in books through Book Fairs, provision for summer reading, and providing an environment conducive to reading. The child writes stories about what he knows.

The Child's Search for Structure through Comprehension

The child develops taste for a variety of stories that are read to him. He begins to develop a sense of plot or story line. He knows when a story has a "happy ending." Reading or listening for comprehension contributes to a child's intellectual structure in many ways, of which only a few can be listed.

1. When the child is selecting a book to read, he scans many books of different types, shapes, sizes, colors and content. He begins to structure the physical and contextual shape of books in his world.

2. When the child decides where to begin to read, he discovers the internal structure of the book, its table of contents, chapters, ending, index, etc.

3. As he increases his reading power, he begins to understand the message-carrying value of the syntax of the English sentence.

4. He begins to see the relationship of sentences to paragraphs to chapters, and of chapters to the entire book. He will have absorbed the meaning of what he reads into his functioning self.

5. He will experience some structures which are similar, and other features which are contrastive, whenever he reads or is read to in the Spanish language.

CHART 5

THE SEARCH FOR INTELLECTUAL STRUCTURE THROUGH COMPREHENSION

LEVELS	COMPREHENSION	SELF-CONCEPT
Kindergarten and Preschool Children	Listens with interest to stories read by teacher or other adult. Talking about the book and the story it contains with the adult is an integral part of this procedure.	I am a person who likes to listen to stories. I am a person who knows lots of adults who like to read to me. I like some stories better than others. I am a person who is beginning to develop taste in reading.
Children Reading Pre-Primer	Adults continue to read to children during the period when they are learning to read so that children can continue to enjoy books written at their maturity level, but which are still too difficult for them to read.	I want to learn to read because for a long time I have been the kind of person who likes stories. But right now, learning to read words is so difficult that I can read only one word at a time, so it is hard for me to follow the story-line.
Children Reading Primer	Not only reads school pre-primers with understanding, but also can read and understand simple meanings found in comics, some commercials on TV, signs, labels on cans, etc.	I find that words I learned in school appear in many places. I am becoming a person who can read interesting messages, wherever they are found.
Children Reading 1st Reader	Reads printed material sufficiently easily to understand and enjoy the story-line, while perfecting reading skills at the same time. Adult begins to reduce number of stories read to child and begins to question child about story he is reading, but still not so extensively as to emphasize content at expense of skill acquisition.	I find that I can read many real books myself and understand them. I like to be the kind of person who reads real books.

LEVELS	COMPREHENSION	SELF-CONCEPT
Children Reading 2nd Reader	Understands a wide variety of printed material written for children. May be said to be reading with understanding. Now reads his own social studies, math, science, poetry, and music books. Uses the reading period to read for pleasure and information in the content areas.	Now I can read a wide variety of books. I know that I am a person who can read for information and for fun. I like to be that kind of person.

V. SELF-TEACHING

Some children graduate from high school not really knowing how to learn efficiently, assuming very little responsibility for their academic growth, and seemingly almost unable to teach themselves. If the child learns only under the teacher's immediate supervision, he won't learn very much, because he is in this relationship for only a short time in his day. Children must learn how to teach themselves; they must become independent learners.

The child who is able to teach himself gains a tremendous feeling of self confidence. He knows that he is responsible for the gains he has made in intellectual growth. Self-teaching takes on added value when the teacher believes, as does Carl Rogers, that "A person learns significantly only those things which he perceives as being involved in the maintenance of, or enhancement of, the structure of self."[1]

For when the child undertakes self instruction, he is provided with additional opportunities to see the significance of the task in relation to his own self.

Rationale

Self-teaching is emphasized in the Malabar Project in order that:

1. The child will learn how to teach himself.
2. The child will learn items of personal academic value to him.
3. The child will experience academic privacy and a needed period of change of pace from the pressure of work at the big table.
4. The child can accelerate and broaden his learning.
5. The child will have opportunities for independent decision-making and leadership.

Procedures

Self-teaching materials should be very simple, self-checking, durable and easily replaced. The following guidelines should be considered when selecting and using self-instructional materials: (1) Does the material meet the needs of the individual child at the moment? (2) Does the child realize that the material will help him learn? (He must not regard these materials as toys or he will play with them rather than learn from them.) (3) Does the child know how the materials will help him learn? (If a child doesn't learn the things the teacher expected him to learn, the possibility that he is functioning at a different level should be investigated.) (4) Is the kinesthetic appeal of these materials pleasant and varied? (All materials must be safe with no sharp edge and no toxic paint.)

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[1] Carl Rogers, Client-Centered Therapy, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1951), p. 389.

Three rules usually suffice to guide the children during their periods of self-teaching: Take care of yourself. Teach yourself. Be sensible.

The teacher shows all the children in the class how to do each new self-teaching activity. The teacher will show all the children in the class at least one way to work with self-teaching activities; for example: unpack the game, lay it out on the table, use it, put it back in the box, and return it to the shelf.

Materials used for self-teaching by the children should frequently be incorporated into the reading lessons. Their use will improve many lessons. The children will see that the teacher regards these materials as serious tools of learning, not just a means of keeping the children quiet. The children will gain new insight into how to learn through their use. The teacher's use of properly designed self-teaching materials will help the child gain insight into the structure of his intellectual task.

Centers of Academic Interest. There will be several centers of academic interest in each room, depending upon the grade level, the children's interests and the interests of the teacher. The following are examples:

1. A browsing corner where children may go to look at books. The setting should be conducive to relaxation.

2. A reading corner with books that the children in that room can really read. In B1, the only book in this center at the beginning of the year would be the first pre-primer. In higher grades, all of the basal readers will be on the shelves, as well as those supplementary books in science, history, poetry, etc., written at lower reading ability levels. The specially prepared bilingual books are introduced via this reading corner.

3. A writing corner with paper, pencil, inks, a typewriter or a printing press, stapler, materials for book covers, binding materials, etc.

4. A center for academic games and manipulative self-teaching materials.

5. Desk spaces for each child so that they can retire to their desks to work quietly.

Parent Involvement. The use of self-teaching materials affords the most natural way for parents to help. A mother can come into the room and easily talk with the child about this facet of learning. Each parent can contribute in his or her special area of experience, whether it be teaching arithmetic, telling the children a story, or listening to them read in either Spanish or English.

Pupil Tutoring. Although the emphasis must, of necessity, be on self-teaching, the self-teaching time in the classroom is ideal for pupil tutoring. Children within the same grade level may work together most advantageously teaching each other. The tutor will learn as much, if not more, than the child being taught. Older children released from class to aid the younger children have also proven effective during this period.

Self-Instruction by the Child. When the child directs his own exploration of materials, his joy is partly the satisfaction that accompanies new insights, and partly the thrill that characterizes anyone who recognizes his own expanding intellectual powers. Self-teaching, therefore, has a dual purpose. It is a private time during which one may learn concepts, skills and one's own personal intellectual structure. The teacher must maintain awareness of both purposes, for neither type of growth takes place without planning. The teacher's sensitive interpretation of the child's needs and her skillful indirect guidance are needed for optimum development of the child during these self-teaching periods.

The child chooses his learning task from among those provided in the room environment. He must separate the task from the total field of available learning tasks and bring it to the foreground of his consciousness. For example, from among all of the intellectual materials provided in the preschool, a child chooses to work with the nesting blocks; or from among all the intellectual activities provided in the first-grade room, a child chooses to work with the flash-cards.

The child generates the activity himself. He must consider the total activity involved, determine its beginning and end, as well as the sequence of medial steps. He thereby further refines the intellectual elements involved in the task. (For example, child working with nesting blocks must see the structure of the blocks as one nesting within another, from smallest to largest, with none left over. Or a child must see the total pile of flash-cards to be learned, understand how to begin on the job, how big a pile it is, and when he has completed the task).

The child discovers the specific areas in which his limited knowledge causes him to err. The child must monitor his performance of the task, accepting correct responses and rejecting incorrect ones. He thereby differentiates between what he knows and what he needs to learn, i.e. when the child tries to force a large block into one which is too small, he realizes immediately that he has failed to select the next increment in the size sequence. When the child fails to recognize a word in his pile of flash-cards, he sees immediately what word he needs to learn.

The child learns to correct his own errors. In order to complete the self-chosen task, he must correct his own errors. He thereby increases his intellectual understanding of the task. (For example, the child corrects his choice of block size to one that correctly completes the sequence. This correction sharpens his power to discriminate among the various sizes of blocks, and strengthens his appreciation of the differences of size in the sequence. The child learns the words he has missed in a series of flash-cards and thereby strengthens his insight into the graphic and phonetic forms that constitute words.)

The child brings the task to closure. The satisfaction that accompanies the completion of a task is often expressed by the children with a cry of "I did it!" This exhilaration seems to represent more than knowledge that the task is complete. It seems, rather, to reflect the release of tension associated with closure.

The child has knowledge of his intellectual structure. Just as the baby explores his body until he becomes familiar enough with it to control it, so must the school child explore his mental functioning until he learns its power and his ability to direct it. Too often, the teacher has assumed all the responsibility for all of the activities through which such discoveries are made. As a result, children have gone on to higher educational experiences without the necessary insights into their own intellectual functionings which enable them to assume the responsibility for their own learning. Through the act of self-teaching, however, the children will gain these needed insights, as they work at Station III during the self-teaching period.

The Child's Search for Structure through Self-Teaching

1. The child chooses what to learn. By this act of choosing on the basis of exploration, the child gains invaluable experience in structuring his intellectual world.

2. The child chooses the work situation. The child must select from the total field that work opportunity in the room which will afford him the best setting in which to work. He may choose to work alone, with a friend, or with a group of children. By exercising this kind of choice, the child learns to seek out the learning experiences which will help him learn, and reject those which will not. (When the teacher tells him with whom he may work and and where he is to do his work, she minimizes his opportunities to develop this ability to make discriminations concerning alternate paths to goal achievement.)

3. The child chooses his working tempo. This choice will be almost totally unconscious in the lower elementary grades, but nonetheless important. Understanding one's personal tempo (the rate at which one can work with accuracy and without undue tension), as well as the occasions when this rate is best accelerated or decelerated is basic to efficient intellectual effort. Allowing the child opportunities during the day to gain increasing insight into this aspect of his personal intellectual structure is highly important.

4. The child chooses the amount of each intellectual task he will do. Teachers are often reminded of the personal nature of these decisions when they see, with astonishment, how much more a child has demanded of himself than they would demand of him. Since he is choosing among tasks (all of which have intellectual value), he is choosing mainly on the basis of his interest and ability.

5. The child must decide on the length of time he will devote to any one intellectual task. In order to do so, he must again assess his interest in the task and balance that interest with the time available for all of the interesting intellectual tasks he wishes to undertake. (Before the teacher determined all of the time-oriented decisions, thus denying the child the opportunity to integrate a sense of timing into his functioning self.)

6. The contract. With capable readers who are reading on grade level, the contract has been incorporated into the study of: phonics, writing, social studies, science, mathematics, and other subjects. As the self-teaching task expands, the volume of work to be done by the child exceeds the day-to-day tasks which are sufficient for the young child. At this point, the child may flounder, much as the too-busy young executive flounders unless he plans his work over a period of a week, weeks or, possibly, months. In order to help the child learn to plan effectively, some of the Malabar teachers have entered into a contract with the child.

   With teacher guidance, the child is given the opportunity to determine for a short period of time his learning program. The child is shown what materials are available to master and explore, and he must estimate what can be accomplished in the time alloted. The contract puts the responsibility on the child, who discovers one of the following:

   (a) I have chosen wisely and have asked for the help I needed to improve myself.

   (b) I have chosen wisely but have wasted time instead of working and seeking help.

   (c) I have chosen wisely but I have had real problems and I could not honor my contract.

   (d) I chose too much work and have done my best to learn as much as I could.

   (e) I did not plan enough work! I will do even more work than I thought I could do.

CHART 6

THE SEARCH FOR INTELLECTUAL STRUCTURE THROUGH SELF-TEACHING

LEVELS	SELF-INSTRUCTION	SELF-CONCEPT
Preschool and Kindergarten Children	Self-teaching accomplished daily through: Experimentation Confirmation of known facts Self-imposed practice	I am a person who is interested in new ideas, new materials. I am a person who likes to assure myself that I know what I think I know. I am a person who likes to repeat or practice recently acquired skills.
Children reading Pre-Primer #1	Learns to conduct himself in the classroom independently of the teacher	I am a person who can take good care of myself in the classroom even when the teacher does not tell us what to do.
Children reading Pre-Primer #2	Investigates structure of materials provided for self-teaching; tasks to be learned may be subordinate to structure seeking, however.	I am a person who has time to look at all the things in the room and think about them. Because I have long been a person who is interested in ideas, I like this time that I spend away from the teacher.
Children reading Pre-Primer #3	Begins to consciously apply himself to learning self-chosen tasks.	Now that I can teach myself, I find that there are some tasks that are particularly useful to learn. I am the kind of person who can teach himself useful tasks.
Children reading Primer	Begins to see the value to himself of academic learning during self-instructional time.	I find that I am a person who can really teach myself useful knowledge. I see that any person who can teach himself is a very powerful person.
Children reading 1st Reader	Shows ability to direct own learning by the completion of charted, short-term tasks.	Since I am the kind of person who can teach himself useful tasks, I am the kind of person who can teach himself all of the tasks I see that I need to learn.
Children reading 2nd Reader	Assumes responsibility for planned learning of long-term tasks of an almost contractual nature.	Since I have become the kind of person who can teach himself many tasks, I can plan what I will teach myself for the next few weeks or months.

CHAPTER IV

COMMENTS AND OBSERVATIONS OF PROJECT TEACHERS

The following comments have been written by the project teachers. These are direct quotes as written by each teacher as part of the project summer "In-Service and Evaluation Seminars." (Summer, 1967)

Fictitious names of pupils and parents have been used throughout these comments.

Preschool Days

By: Rita Campos, preschool teacher

Initial home visits are made to get acquainted with each child and his parents. At this time, the teacher introduces the program and explains the importance of the role of the parent in the program. In recruiting children, thought is carefully given to the age distribution of the class, so that not all the children will graduate at the same time. At least half should remain to keep the continuity of the program.

On the first day of preschool, the new parents and children arrive, with anxiety showing plainly on their faces. They do not know what to expect. However, the "veteran" group of mothers and children arrive smiling and confident, ready to greet the newcomers and securely proceed with getting started. For a new group, not knowing what is expected, the new situation can be alarming. The teacher needs to consider thoughtfully what she can do to help parents and children feel welcome. For example, I greet the children and parents at the door. I point out something which may be interesting as part of the daily routine, such as showing what happens in our room every morning when we come in. We change our name from "home" to "school." From then on, it will be mother who will help Roberto find his name until he is able to recognize it himself.

The teacher will do all she can to reassure the parents and help them to feel accepted in the situation and confident in the role of both parent and teacher. Mrs. Morales, who speaks only Spanish, may feel that she has nothing to contribute to the program because she lacks knowledge of English. The teacher then assures her that without her Spanish language the program could not function as it should. In this same situation, both Marcos and his mother are also non-English speaking. The teacher can then greet them warmly in Spanish and begin to show Marcos his name and to show him things about the room.

In the preschool, mothers are made to feel that they make a most important contribution to teaching. Mothers work individually or in groups of two or three. Mrs. Martinez reads a story to Alicia and Ricardo. While she reads, she talks about colors and numbers. Discussion about what is going on in the pictures ensues. Mrs. Estrada may be helping Gregory put the Humpty Dumpty puzzle together, while reciting the nursery rhyme. Simultaneous activities of this sort are going on in various parts of the room. Parents literally take over the instructional program of their children with the guidance of the teacher. In all corners of the room, learning is in progress whether it is a little conversation about taking a ride on the Batmobile, discussing a painting or actually sitting down to write "my name" with pencil or chalk.

Marcos comes from a Spanish-speaking home. He is learning to acquire labels. In looking through some picture cards, he points to an apple and says, "Apple." Then, he points to the picture of the other fruits and says, "Orange" and "Banana." He says with a smile of satisfaction, "Good"; Mrs. Estrada answers, "Do you like bananas?" He says, "Mm, good."

Mothers are the strengthening pillars. Without them, learning opportunities could not be so prolific. Mothers provide abundant ideas, given the chance. They soon have confidence to initiate activities and learning experiences for the children.

Our preschool had its most rewarding experience at the close of the semester. The parents were confident enough to independently plan a culminating activity for the children. Mothers themselves thought of the idea, planned the program, made crepe paper caps and gowns and organized the celebration party. Needless to say, this was a great achievement for the parents and children, too. But the underlying advantages were in strengthening parent-child relationships. Everyone had a feeling of contribution and satisfaction at this point; an understanding of the goals seemed clear.

Some mothers in the beginning had misgivings about the program. For example, one mother wanted to see a rigid structure in the class. She said, "I think the children do not have a firm enough direction." This mother came to see the advantages of flexibility and individual instruction, and her contribution and participation eventually led her to feel more at ease.

Mrs. Estrada said, "I wasn't too keen on coming, but now I enjoy it." Mrs. Estrada and Gregory very obviously enjoyed themselves. Sometimes they found this enjoyment in exploring a book, in discussing a painting, in discovering a closer bond of love between them.

Intellectual Stimulation in Preschool

By: Frank Serrano, preschool teacher

In meeting the individual needs of our pupils, we have attempted to individualize our program to the highest degree possible. Enlisting the children's parents to participate in the classroom has been of great value in this endeavor. We have been able to lower the child-adult ratio to three children for each adult; and, on some days, we have achieved a one-to-one ratio. There are many positive outcomes of having the parents participate in our preschool, such as:

1. The parents become involved in the education of their children. Education is dignified for each child by the presence of an adult from his family. When a child takes his first educational step in school, his mother is there with instant praise and approval to reinforce the learning process and thereby encourage the child in his achievement or to try for the second step. It is indeed a joy for me to see the parent and child basking in the glory of each accomplishment. A mother, in one of these moments, spoke out loud for all to hear, "I knew he could do it. I told you he was smart." Another mother remarked, "I didn't know he could learn so fast."

2. Having an adult member of his family provides the security, warmth and support for each child to become an active member of the classroom. For many of our students, the most comfortable and safest place to be is next to mother. No attempt is made to separate the children from their parents. I have found that a short, casual contact with each child is more effective for the children's adjustment than a prolonged session. Most of our children are initially reticent to explore within the classroom. The parent's love, affection and understanding provide the avenue by which the child's self confidence begins to be built up rapidly, so that he can be his true self - a curious, exploring youngster who is able to make choices and commitments and accept the responsibilities of such actions. Interestingly, the pupils who have made the quickest and most dramatic improvements are the ones whose parents have been actively participating in our program.

3. The parents learn, by participating, how to help their children so that the adults are able to continue assisting them at home.

4. Oral language is greatly enhanced. The children do not have to wait for their turn to talk with the teacher. Many adults have been present to answer questions, to ask children questions, to help children solve problems, to listen and sometimes to cuddle the bewildered child.

The process of individualizing our program begins with the parents' helping their children to locate their names. From the first day of school, the children take their name cards from the chart holder marked, "At Home" and place them on the chart holder marked, "At School." Eventually, the youngsters are able to identify their names without assistance. The next steps are introduced to each parent individually. After a brief explanation to a parent, I demonstrate with someone else's child. When I am through, I call that parent's child. I commence with the second pupil and shortly after the parent continues in my place. The parents seem more at ease when I work with them individually. I apply this same procedure whenever possible during the school day. In addition, the parents who have been "initiated" voluntarily become resource persons to other mothers.

The more opportunities I provide for the parents to become actively engaged in working with their own children, the easier it becomes for them to make the transition to working individually with other pupils. An interesting phenomenon is the emergence of specialists among the parents which is determined by each adult's interest.

This specialization process results in groupings of mothers working simultaneously, utilizing most of the centers. Most of these activities are of short duration. When a child completes the task at hand, he is free to go to another area of his choice. This new area may or may not be one where an adult is present to assist. The marvelous rapport between the youngsters and adults is evident by the way in which many pupils complete a task with one adult and seek out one of the other mothers who has another activity underway.

The sensitivity of the mothers to the children's needs is a sight to behold. When some children do not respond to them, they step aside and let another mother or the teacher take over. They know with which adults these same children will respond. I have heard mothers say to one another, "There is your pupil. You're the only one that can work with her." Sometimes mothers referred their own offspring to another parent or to the teacher because they felt their child did better with someone else. There were also instances when I was not able to relate to a particular child, but a certain mother was able to. Increasingly, all the adults are able to communicate and work with all of the children.

Working with the children with their names begins with the first day of school and ends with the closing of school. The following are the steps that I have followed:

1. The child learns to recognize his name.

2. The parents guide each child in tracing his name. The adults control the movement of the child's index finger. The name card is the instructional material used. A separate name card showing the correct letter formations and, if applicable, the notation of left-handedness, is available for use by adults.

3. The child learns to trace his name with his index finger without assistance.

4. The child learns the sequential order of the letters in his name. As the child points to each letter, an adult takes an identical movable letter and sticks it on a small bulletin board that we have developed for this purpose.

5. The child learns to place the movable letters in the sequential order of his name on the small bulletin board.

6. The child traces his name on the chalkboard with adult guidance.

7. The child traces his name on the board without assistance.

8. The child writes his name on the chalkboard without assistance.

9. The child locates the letters of his name in the alphabet. This he does on a piece of paper that has the capital letters on the upper portion and the lower case on the bottom portion. The child's name is written in the center. The pupil draws a line from the letters in his name to the corresponding letters in the alphabet. Again, the sequence of the letters in each name is followed.

10. The child learns the names of the letters in his name.

Since verbal mediation and conceptual development are thought to be interrelated with the development of oral language, we provide maximum opportunities for nurturing growth of this vital area. Oral language development, then, is of utmost importance in our program. The pupils are encouraged to express ideas, to engage in conversation and to ask questions with adults and members of their peer group. To facilitate and expedite this process, there is a minimum of group instruction; however, group instruction is used when needed. Our children also have opportunities to grow in ease and competency in speaking before a group. A small group may be the audience or the audience may be composed of all the children and adults present. In general, I have followed these steps:

1. A volunteer leaves the group, goes and gets his name card from the chart holder. He returns and stands in front of the group and shows his name card to the group. The teacher or another adult asks for another volunteer.

2. The child, in addition to showing his name card, is encouraged to say his name.

3. The child, in addition to showing his name card, is encouraged to say, "My name is ....." The pupil is given the opportunity to chose the next person. The selection of the next candidate may be done by pointing; however, later on with more opportunity, the pupils are encouraged to make their selection by saying the name of the child of their choice.

In addition to the tools needed for various art activities, paper, pencils and the chalkboard for scribbling, drawing and writing are part of the materials the children are provided.

Teacher-made chalkboards have been issued to each child to be kept at home to support the interest of the parents and children in continuing preschool education in the home.

Reading readiness and arithmetic readiness materials are sent home. The children, with the help of the parents, may use these lessons over and over again. The mimeographed "follow-up" is kept in plastic sleeves and the answers are made by writing with a crayon. The responses are easily erased from the plastic by wiping it with a tissue or piece of cloth. All these follow-up lessons are first done in the classroom before they are sent home. Copies of the finger plays and nursery rhymes that have been taught at school are also sent for home study.

Educational toys and materials for home study are at a premium in the homes of our community; therefore, duplicates of some classroom materials are kept in each youngster's home. Other materials of limited quantities are checked out for short lengths of time, e.g., library books.

The parents who have gained insight into how to help their children by their participation in the classroom are now able to demonstrate their deep concern for the education of their offspring in a tangible way.

Finger plays have been a source of enjoyment and of great value in helping the children to respond emotionally, to cast off their shackles of inhibition and thereby to give vent to their natural curiosity. After many repetitions, the familiar finger plays become another means by which our children are stimulated to think. They answer such questions as: What kind of animals are in the finger play? How many? What did they do? What happened?," etc.

Nursery rhymes that have become part of the children's repertoire served as a vehicle for choral speaking and for recalling the series of events.

Cutting pictures out of magazines is preceded by random tearing of pictures. These cutouts are then glued on a large piece of paper. With the passage of time, the activity becomes more specific. Now a child looks for pictures that fit a theme. The large piece of paper to be used for pasting the cutouts has a word, or a phrase, or a sentence to provide the direction. It might be: Toys, Things for Mother, Things for Father, Things I Like, Things for the Kitchen, Things with Wheels, etc.

These children who have the manual dexterity may use scissors. The ones without this facility may tear out their choice or the child designates the pictures and an adult cuts it out for him.

Kindergarten Days

By: Ruth Howden, Kindergarten teacher

I have never forced Ricardo to practice writing his name or even said that it was important that he learn how. This is why I was so surprised that he thought I had taught him. He sensed that learning to write his name was important because I kept returning to that task; but he also knew I felt that he needed time to become at ease in school, to talk and to explore. Ricardo was one of the children who needed time in kindergarten to play, manipulate and work on his own tasks before he was ready for academic work. This is valuable period for learning independently, choosing one's own activities, using and caring for materials and working with others. I've found, however, that those who don't need this time in school seem to tire of it and demand more challenging work. After the breakthrough of Ricardo's teaching himself to write his name, he progressed rapidly, spending most of his time writing or drawing elaborate abstract designs. By the end of the year, he had also learned to count, "1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, turkey, turkey, turkey." I'm sure he would say I taught him that, too.

My teaching (to borrow the terms from MacLuhan) is both the media and the message: for it is the values I act on every day that the children learn. Teachers' actions are their own honest expressions in their direct relationship to individual children. This was made most apparent to me after almost a year of daily bending down to tie Roberto's shoes for him. During a successful period of reading with him, Roberto seriously told me, "Now that I can read and write my name and know my numbers, all I have to learn is how to tie my shoes."

My intention is to get the children involved deeply in school as soon as possible and let them feel they are growing in competence. If at all times they know that on their own level they are well educated, they will continue working. A well educated person at any level is one who can make his own decisions freely and confidently because he has developed the ability to see various possibilities and is not limited to either a blind following or compulsive opposition to authority.

The Child's Self-Concept

By: Bernice Johnson, first grade teacher

The structure of our reading program, with its emphasis on individualized instruction, allows each child to progress as rapidly as he chooses. He is unrestrained by the limitations inherent in the traditional classroom groupings for reading. I would like to share an experience with Juan from which I learned a lot.

The Red Story Book, The Green Story Book and the Blue Story Book are pre-primers used at the first grade level. These books are used in the sequence as shown. Juan is a first grade boy from a monolingual Spanish-speaking family. He learned all the words in the Red Story Book. It had taken him twelve weeks to do so, while his friends had finished the other two pre-primers and were already reading the primer, "Little White House."

Juan resisted the two pre-primers which followed the Red Story Book. I had strong feelings about the importance of maintaining the sequence, but he had equally strong feelings about not maintaining that sequence. He chose to skip to the primer, "Little White House." I told him he should read the Green Story Book and the Blue Story Book before he could get the primer, "Little White House."

Some parents had made lovely tote bags for all the children in the class. Children are allowed to take their books home in these tote bags. Juan was determined to read his primer before finishing the pre-primers. He took his primer home and persisted in reading it until he had learned all the words in the primer.

I have seldom seen a child with such a determined attitude toward learning. He went to the teacher next door and showed her his nice new book. I had saved this new book especially for Juan. Whenever a visitor or an adult came into the room, he would try to show them how much he knew. He would take out the flash cards on vocabulary from books he had read and ask the visitors to test him on these words.

Juan was a real challenge to me. He was determined to read the book he wanted to read. I wanted him to read the books in sequence to build his vocabulary. Juan's success with the primer convinced me that this sequence was not necessary for him. Juan regarded Eugene and Frank as his symbols of success. They found extra time during the day to "tutor" Juan. This helped to strengthen Juan's academic progress.

Juan entered the second semester with a much improved self image. "I can read. I enjoy reading. I can teach others to read. I am a person of much importance. I, too, can now play the role of teacher. I know all the words in many books. I can read to my sister. I can read to my teacher. I can read to my friends. I now am an important person."

Frank, Eugene and Juan had three mats side-by-side on the floor. They had been lying flat on their backs, books in the air, all reading together. Had you entered the room, you would have wondered, "What's going on here?" But they were really learning.

To see this six-year-old boy so eager to learn, seeking and sharing the knowledge he has learned, is most rewarding. Juan learned, but I also learned many things from this now bilingual boy who thinks bilingually, translates bilingually, and has an eagerness to learn. I learned to release him to progress at his own rate of speed. I also learned that his need was for success. Should I detain a child who disregards the sequential order of books? I continue to wonder at Juan's accomplishment and to explore the nature of the drive that propelled him. Yes, I continue to inquire and to seek. Are there limitations?

Let's Let Them Learn

By: Kay Johnson, first grade teacher

When I allow my pupils to progress at their own pace, I see many interesting results. Rosa was an imitator; everything I said she would repeat or mimic. At first, I thought she was trying to show off, but when I let Rosa take her books and flash cards home, she began to change. Soon, she was occupying a corner in the room, playing school and teaching the other children the flash card words. When she realized that I trusted her ability to learn she found confidence in herself and a recognized place in Room Two.

Some children think of new ways to work with learning materials. For example, Jose made up his own game with the magnetic board. He took the cards and gave half to Martin. Then, they took magnetic letters and matched them with letters on the cards. This was a new game to them and one that had more meaning for them because they originated it.

Children want to be independent. One day as Raoul was reading, he came across a word he didn't know but he wouldn't let the child next to him tell the word; he just said, "YOU DON'T HAVE TO TELL ME!" This independence continues to grow as children continually work to improve themselves. Juan practiced writing his name on many sheets of paper before he was satisfied with the way he wrote. During Fernald writing, many children write the same story over day after day until they are pleased with their ability to write and often work at it until they are pleased with their own penmanship. If we are to assume a new role as resource person, we must look for clues from our pupils. When a child needs our help and asks for it, we need to be ready to guide him towards finding his own solution to the problem. Sometimes we must insist that a child work harder so that he will discover his ability to learn. Some children will not ask for help; we must look for clues from them so that we may find the best ways of assisting them. Each child is different and we must accept these differences. We need to guide each child towards improving where he needs to improve and developing increased competence in areas in which he already excels.

But most of all, we need to learn to trust them. We need to allow them to take home books and materials, to work on their own in the classroom, to guide them in oral discussion and to help them find new ways of learning. We should also be the kind of resource person who helps our pupils find the causes and reasons for rules and help them learn to live by them. Books and materials cost money, but the cost is far less than the price we have to pay when our students sense we do not trust them to take materials home.

Self-Teaching

By: Holly Richards, first grade teacher

"How do children become self-directing?" "How do you get off the ground with self-teaching?" "How do you know if a child is learning something with the materials?" "How do you motivate?" "Do you believe that by working individually, you can actually do as much as with a group?" "Do you have time to work individually? Wouldn't a group lesson be more economical?" "How do you feel about competition?" In answer, I can tell Don* what I do and how I feel about what I do. Before working in the project, I didn't have this good feeling about my function as a teacher, and I use my feelings like a radar. For example, I had a growing feeling of frustration about teaching until I finally got my foot in the "project door" late this Spring. This feeling of dissatisfaction had continuously signaled the need for action.

I had good times and bad with reading, too. Every time I didn't feel good about it, I had to identify the problem and do something about it. Some change was needed. We outgrew a phase and yet were trapped in it. John* said, "I tried a directed type of math lesson with a few. Julio and Robert got up and left. I think they are not used to a passive role."

Maria, this morning, brought me the short vowel cards and matching pictures. She said, "You watch me put the pictures out." She worked to see if I approved or disapproved. When she finished, and they were all correct, she got her crayons. I was satisfied and so was she. I don't know what steps were involved, but Maria had learned to take care of her needs.

Broadly speaking, I try to set up an environment which doesn't depend entirely on me or on constant direction. I try not to do anything a child could conceivably do for himself.

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*Don and John were Peace Corps trainees participating in the classroom who asked these questions.

Motivation

By: Jean Marie Steele, first grade teacher

First grade, to every child, is a "magic" grade. When I asked my class of Bl's last year just what it was they wanted to do in first grade, their immediate response was, "Learn to read."

With this much enthusiasm already generated, motivation is readily achieved. Those children who are able to write their names and seem to know the alphabet fairly well should learn to read easily.

Using a pencil and paper is pretty heady stuff. You may find, as I did, that the children become so involved that all "attention-span" records are shattered. I might also add that this will occur during reading time, independent time, phonics, or when the teacher is working with individuals or a group, etc. Operating at their own level seems to account for these long periods of concentration.

Parent Participation

By: Irene Hartz, second grade teacher

We have tried to encourage parent participation in our reading project at Malabar. We think it is important to bring the parents into the school and the classroom. We want the parents to know us and we want to know them, so that we can work together for what is best for the children.

Also, we needed to have the parents come in because, frankly, we needed their help. One teacher could not give thirty children the individual help they needed.

The third week of school, I sent letters home with the children. I invited the parents to come in on a certain afternoon at 3:00 o'clock. Six mothers showed up on the appointed day. We got acquainted over coffee and doughnuts. I told them that the children and I needed their help. I explained our program and discussed with them just what we would do.

The mothers appeared to be interested. Mrs. Morales said that she would like to work with the children and could come in twice a week between 2:00 and 3:00. Mrs. Sanchez said that she could come in one day a week. Of the six mothers, four said that they would help. The ones who could not had small children at home.

We now had one mother coming in every morning for one hour to help with the morning reading class. The afternoon reading class had five or six mothers coming in at least once during the week. On some days, we had one mother; on other days, two; and, occasionally, three.

I found it helpful to keep the schedule of days and parents' names on the chalkboard. This gave the work importance and also helped to remind the mothers of their days. It also reminded the children to remind their mothers. They were very good at this.

When the mothers first started helping in the room, I could see that they felt a little ill at ease and out of place. They would come in hesitantly and, when a child finished reading for them, they were timid about calling another child to them. Soon, however, they were deeply engrossed in their work. They seemed to have developed a dignity and a sureness that what they did was needed and important.

As time went on, the mothers seemed to take a personal interest in each child. For example, Mrs. Hidalgo would say, "I am very worried about Mary. She is missing a lot of her words and is reading very slowly." Or Mrs. Rames might say, "Rudy is reading a lot better than he used to."

The children whose mothers helped were very proud of their mothers. In the morning, for example, Errol would announce triumphantly in a loud voice so all would hear, "My mother will be in today, Mrs. Hartz."

With the children there were never problems of discipline where the parents were concerned. The children liked and respected the parents. If a parent could not come in, I heard this: "Where is Mrs. Sanchez today?" "Do you think she is late?" "Hey, Julio, is your mother coming in today?"

Other than the obvious advantages of having the parents' help, I thoroughly enjoyed having the mothers in the room. It was so nice to share with a look, a word or a smile something that one of the children had done. There is Edward, flat on his stomach reading poetry aloud with obvious relish. Or Martha has finally finished her book. How hard she has worked! How happy we are for her.

The classroom is a happy place. We are all working. There is a contented hum in the air. We are all drawn together for a common purpose. We were very fortunate in having a father come in for a while. The children all wanted to read to him. Unfortunately, he could not continue because of his work.

Soledad was reading well below grade level. Her mother started helping in class. She didn't say anything about Soledad's work, but I knew that she must be comparing her achievement with the others. In a surprisingly short time, Soledad's reading improved and she was reading at grade level at the end of the semester. Almost invariably, when a child's parent came in to help, that child showed marked improvement in reading.

After hearing the children read on her first day of helping in class, one mother pointed to one child and said, "This one reads good, but this one (pointing to another), she doesn't read too good." I cringed with the child. The mother must have sensed our reaction because she never did it again. This was the only incident I can remember that caused me any concern.

I see a picture of a parent, arm around the child, bent down to hear the child read; or of the child and parent, quietly and seriously discussing the child's work.

The parents enjoyed the work. Mrs. Sanchez, who came in every morning, told me how she missed it when she could not come in. Mrs. Hidalgo said, " You know, it is very interesting working with the children. I like it." At one time or another, the others also told me of their pleasure.

The mothers made every effort to come despite hardships. I knew how busy they were with home and family. Some even had to get baby sitters for younger children so that they could come. Almost invariably, if they could not come in, they would let me know by 'phone or note.

In some cases, mothers used their new found skills to help their younger children. Mrs. Marquez told me she had helped her young son, a first grader, improve his reading. She had used the Fernald method of tracing words to teach him. The boy had been having a great deal of trouble learning to read. One of our mothers read Spanish as well as English. She was very careful to translate for the non-Spanish-speaking children. The children enjoyed listening to her read and I know she enjoyed reading to them.

On "Back to School Night," the participating parents helped explain to the others in Spanish, if it were necessary, about the program. The other parents were very interested to meet the mothers who worked with their children and who knew them.

We had a little ceremony during which I explained what the mothers had done, thanked them and presented each with a "Certificate of Service." I was very touched with Mrs. Morales who had helped out all semester, came up to me and said, in reference to her certificate, "Mrs. Hartz, I don't deserve this."

What surprised me the most, though, was that each and every mother who had so unselfishly given of her time and herself came up to me and thanked me for the opportunity that she had to help.

Did we accomplish the goals we set out for?

The parents who helped know us and the school much better. They feel at home in school now. As Mrs. Sanchez remarked to me one day, "I'm not afraid of school now!" We know the parents better. We not only know each other but like and trust one another.

I know that the parents who met with our participating parents and talked with them have a better feeling toward the school. Several mentioned with regret that they have not been able to help.

Did the extra help the children got show results in their reading?

We know that the class as a whole is reading much better because we are participating in the reading program. Over three-fourths of the class is reading at grade level and above. One-fourth of the class is reading at third grade level. A number of factors enter into this, one of which is the help of the parents.

I think the intangibles are just as important. We cannot judge the effect of the interest and concern shown each child by the parents.

Verbatim Quotes from Children during Story-Writing Class

Juan: "I like school better than play!"

Julie: "I know what rhymes with night." "Bite!"

Martin: "I done it wrong. I'll have to trace it again."

Maria: "Mrs. Hartz, I put 'y' on here for 'they'" "Where did you see it?" "In the newspaper." (room paper)

Eugene: (teacher asked : "Do you know all the words for your story?") "Yes, except this - I have to trace it."

Linda: "Can I take this book? My mother likes it."

Felix: "Rafael asked for a word and I told him to sound it out like I did."

Eugene: "How do you spell 'eat'? 'E' or 'I'?"

Eugene: (needed was) - "I'm going to sound it out." He wrote "W" - looked up - then wrote "A" - pained look, head in hand - wrote "S".

Edward: "Is this right, Mrs. Hartz - 'makeing'?" "No - take out the 'e'."

Juan: "I am on page 72. I am going home and read. I am going to work hard."

Richard: "I can't write today. I have to get my word box fixed." (he did it in a very business-like manner.)

Juan: (on going through words found one he needed to know and asked what it said) "I'd better trace it." "It's fun to read, Mrs. Hartz!" "I don't need words from you any more, Mrs. Hartz."

Eugene: (on using pack of word cards) "Mrs. Hartz, this helps me."

Edward: "Teacher, I sound it out - look!"

Maria: "I know the words I am reading." Teacher: "How did you learn so many words?" "I sound them out!!" "I need to finish this book, Mrs. Hartz."

Rosa: "Mrs. Hartz, I think when I write these stories."

Edward: "I don't need to ask you for words from the book. I can figure them out myself."

Some Problems A New Project Teacher Might Encounter

By: Thermon R. Holliday

Upon observing many project classrooms in action, I was curious about the methods applied in these rooms. When I learned of the in-service meetings to be conducted by the Project Director, Miss Amsden, I joined the group and received an explanation of the project's philosophy. This explanation gave me insights which made it easier for me to understand and appreciate the methods used by the project teachers.

As a neophyte to the reading program, I was unsure of the methods. After I attended several meetings with the Program Director, I began to apply the methods in my classroom. I would like to share with you some of the problems I encountered as a teacher new to the program.

My first problem was my own skepticism. I wondered if I could accept this different method. Could children learn with so high a degree of verbalization or "noise" in the classroom? Could the children be taught to assume responsibility for their own learning, or would they be lost without my telling them what to do and when to do it? You can't teach an old dog new tricks, so it's said. And this "old dog" had doubts about his receptiveness to innovation. I was reluctant to discard the security of the old way before exploring the insecurities of the new way.

The next problem seemed to be one of understanding the program and all its aspects. It seemed essential that a new teacher understand the total program before he made any attempt to adapt it to his class.

There were inherent organizational problems. How should the classroom be set up? What kinds of learning centers for independent study should be set up? What specific learning games and other self-help materials should be decided on?

There were also concerns about scheduling, e.g., should I let a child work on one game as long as he wanted, or when should the change be made? These questions created many doubts; I anticipated total collapse of the attempt, convinced that these questions should be solved in advance.

Another question was the implementation of the whole program, especially the self-directed activities. If your preparation is not thorough and your plans are not completely thought through, you will have problems. General plans on paper seem faultless, but your problems come when you have failed to think through the details.

My next problem was in the area of orienting the children to the concepts of self-discipline and self-teaching. They had to learn to work independently and in small groups, initiating and assuming responsibility for their learning activities. These children had not been exposed to this degree of self reliance, and it would be difficult to change their learning habits. A group of children having been taught these new concepts from their earlier grades would not have experienced the problems mentioned here.

Often, because of lack of time, one was unable to complete tasks already begun. I felt more time was needed to allow for walking around the room to observe and to assist the children at work. Time would have to be taken from the instructional center for this activity.

I was somewhat reluctant to admit my insecurities to the experienced project teachers. I would visit their rooms, seeking answers to help me overcome my doubts. I later learned that even the more experienced teachers had struggled with many of these same problems and that they were more than willing and ready to share experiences that would be of great help to this "rookie."

Phonics

By: Si Yip, reading specialist

One of the facets of the Malabar Reading Program for Mexican-American children is individualized instruction. Each child reads in a reader at his own level and at his own pace. Within this individualized instructional program, there is individual teaching or contact on a one-to-one basis between teacher and pupil. This allows the teacher and pupil to jointly assess his progress, to see what needs to be learned and the methods by which he may learn them.

During this individual relationship between teacher and pupil, which may be within the word configuration reading time or the phonics time, many benefits, planned or unplanned, are derived. One obvious benefit is establishing close rapport with the pupil and the many opportunities to help him build his own self image. Individual attention emphasizes human relationships and respects the dignity of the person. The pupil feels that the teacher values him as a person and is confident that the teacher likes him.

"You're doing fine," I said to Larry in one of our individual sessions. "You read this whole page without missing a word. How did you do it?" I asked knowingly. "Any word I don't know, I sound out," he said loudly, so that everyone in the room could hear him. Needless to say, Larry felt pretty good about his self image. Could this be the same Larry who felt so unworthy a couple of months ago because he couldn't read as well as his friends? Weeks of confidence building through praise and encouragement during our individual sessions was beginning to bear fruit. He now believed in himself enough to learn.

Frances' mother came to see me one day. She said she had noticed that Frances' reading had improved somewhat. Frances had told her she was learning her sounds. She came to observe to see if she couldn't help her at home, also. The mother saw how Frances had learned the sounds of the consonants and short vowels. By sounding out each letter in these words, "sad," "bag," "lap," "can," she was able to read each word. Frances' mother stayed to help her and the other students to sound out words and to listen to them read. The help Frances was subsequently getting at home from mother was reflected in her improvement in reading. The next semester, Frances' mother was able to go in regularly to help Frances' new teacher. She was heard to tell the children to sound out the words they did not know.

Word Recognition and Comprehension for Children Learning English as a Second Language

By: Lionel Abrahams, specialist in English as a second language

There are many non-English-speaking children in our reading project. Jorge had learned to write the word "ride," one of the first words in his pre-primer. He had placed the cut-out letters on the flannel board to spell r-i-d-e. He turned to me, pointed to the word and said, "Lookit." I asked him to read it for me. He said what I thought was "ride." Then, I asked him if he knew what the word meant. "Tell me in Spanish if you want to," I told him. Without hesitating, he replied, "Si, si." I repeated the question, thinking he had not understood it. Nodding his head up and down in the affirmative, he repeated, "Si, si." It hit me like a thunderbolt. Was he confusing the word "ride" with "right," as in "That's right?" I asked some other non-English-speaking children in the room to tell me what "ride" meant. Ricardo said it meant "escribir" (write). Maria said it meant "bien," "muy bien" (good, very good). Did Jorge hear "ride?" or did he hear "right?"

Increasing the difficulty with the concept of ride was the awareness that no single Spanish word could be used to precisely describe this action. We say, "monte la bicicleta" and "monta el caballo" (from the verb 'to mount') - "I'm going to ride the bicycle" and "Ride the horse."

I was reinforcing syntax with a small group of children We were using picture cards for adjective and noun descriptions. "This is a blue car. This is a brown hat," etc. When we got to the picture of an airplane, I said, "This is a shiny airplane." "What is a shiny airplane?" I asked. Julio answered, "Un avion chino."(a Chinese airplane).

Ask a little non-English-speaking child, "How are you?" And often, he'll raise five fingers and say, "Fai," indicating five years old. What that child hears is, "How old are you?"

Communication errors of this kind often lead teachers to misjudge learning ability. Since, in teaching, one of the processes taught is the association of sounds with written symbols, the teacher of the non-English-speaking child must be aware that the correct associations are made. When Teresa reads the word "very" as "berry," the teacher should be aware. If repeated modeling by the teacher fails to elicit the correct oral response, the teacher must determine if the child is hearing all the sounds that make up the particular word. It would be revealing to discover how many non-English-speaking children fail to hear certain sounds which do not comprise elements of their first language.

In reading with non-English-speaking children, we ask not only "what does it say," but "what does it mean."

CHAPTER V

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS DEVELOPED FOR THE MALABAR PROJECT

Special instructional materials and self-teaching aids are needed by the children at Malabar if they are to develop a firm base on which to build the intellectual structures involved in oral and written communication. Many Mexican-American children do not have within their homes the concept-building and language-developing experiences which build readiness for school instruction in English. Since the children come from bilingual homes, they need many types of instructional materials which are not yet available commercially.

Materials Especially Developed for the Project

In December, 1966, approval was requested for a subcontract with the Youth Opportunities Foundation to implement many ideas for instructional materials which were being suggested by Malabar teachers and members of the Project staff. This subcontract, which the Office of Education approved, involved art work, printing, and other steps involved in the preparation of self-teaching aids, supplementary reading books (in both English and Spanish), and other instructional materials.

This contract made it possible for us to prepare, illustrate and color-reproduce copies of three bilingual books: (1) the "Ing" book, (2) the S book, and (3) Agents in the Family. The first book deals with difficulties children have in understanding the participial forms of verbs; while the second is designed to help them with the difficult "third person singular", which is responsible for approximately one-fourth of all their variations from standard English. The third book demonstrates what can be done with stories written and illustrated by creative upper-grade children. Prototype copies of a fourth book, "Sam," also written and illustrated by a Malabar child, were developed with funds from the Youth Opportunities Foundation.

These books appear to have value for these bilingual children for a number of reasons. The first reason might be described as the "image impact"; i.e. children identify with the leading characters in these books. This self-identification they have sought but have not found in books where the orientation is essentially middle-class and "Anglo."

The presence of the Spanish language in addition to the English language on each page further strengthens the Mexican-American child's self-identification. It is also positive assurance to the child that his Spanish language background is accepted by the school.

The second value has to do with the appropriateness of the language, with respect to both vocabulary and syntactical structure. Since "Sam" and "Agents in the Family" have been written by older children at the Malabar School, they are simply and naturally written within the syntactical framework appropriate to young children's oral language development. The children's illustrations have been professionally reproduced and adapted by adult artists.

The two books providing experience with verb forms that appear to be the special oral language needs of our bilingual children have been written by one of the Malabar teachers and illustrated by a professional artist working on the project. The "S Book" is reproduced in black and white in Appendix C. This reproduction indicates the way in which the artist has used costumes, musical instruments, and other elements from the cultural heritage of these children.

Since the children are being given a thorough training in phonics, books printed in both English and Spanish should help them learn to read in both languages. Spanish is very consistently phonetic; hence children can do considerable self-teaching in Spanish if materials at the right interest and reading level are available. In these books, the English text is printed first on some pages; on other pages the Spanish text is given first. On one page of the S book, the English text "she comes" is accompanied by the Spanish "Ella come." One would think that since the English word "come" appears frequently in primers that the child might read both of these in English. Consistently, however, the child reads: "She comes. Eh-ya co-meh." In other words, they are learning two ways of expressing the same thought to friends who differ in their proficiency in English. With the help of the S book, they are learning the -s ending for verbs in the third person singular.

Use of the prototype books in the classroom has demonstrated children's interest in them, as well as their value in terms of self-identification and language learning.

In addition to these especially prepared books, the Malabar teachers and the research staff are currently developing special phonic workbooks that provide our children with exercises in phonetic discrimination.

Use of Commercially Prepared Materials

We have also used commercially available self-instructional materials in lieu of the special project materials which were to have been prepared by the Youth Opportunities Foundation in OE8-0015 proposal, which was not approved.

Use of Instructional Materials at Different Maturity Levels

Specially developed Project materials, commercial materials, and teacher developed materials are all used in combination to further the learnings of children. Illustrations will be given under the maturity levels used in Charts 1 through 6 describing the instructional program.

Preschool and kindergarten level.

At the preschool and kindergarten levels, self-instruction can be a concomitant of play activities whenever the materials for play have been designed or selected to further the child's development of intellectual concepts and his learning of the symbols used to represent them.

Consequently the project preschool and kindergarten classes are supplied with many types of play materials which facilitate the children's intellectual development. These include shape-sorting exercises, three-dimensional sequence tasks, and a large variety of puzzles. These materials are colorful, self-checking, textually interesting, and durable. The children voluntarily select these materials during their indoor play period from among the many possible activities available. By trial and error, the children learn to sequence objects from "very little" to "very big" as they arrange and re-arrange some of the three-dimensional sequence materials such as nesting boxes or cylinder shapes. Similarly, they learn to anticipate shape similarities and differences as they become increasingly familiar with the shape-sorting boxes; hence they no longer try to force the legendary square peg into the round hole. The development of these discriminative abilities is a necessary prerequisite to later activities in attempting to fit letter-sounds with word patterns.

Preschool and kindergarten children have easy access to writing materials during the school day. One of the preschool teachers has developed a three-dimensional letter-frame on which the child can obtain tactual cues concerning the shape of the letters in his name before he attempts to reproduce them on the sheet below. This instructional tool provides an effective introduction to writing for our very young children.

Children at the preschool and kindergarten levels have enjoyed the large eighteen-inch by twenty-inch copy of the bilingual "Ing Book" which they put on the floor and pore over, with or without adult help or interpretation. Their self-identification with the cultural elements in the pictures, as well as the structuring of their bilingual language field, has made this activity a very worthwhile experience for them.

Pre-primer levels. When the children first enter first-grade, self-teaching materials of a more obvious academic nature are introduced, although the children continue to use the same kinds of play materials (puzzles, sequence tasks, etc.) that they had enjoyed in their preschool classes.

Phonics workbooks are introduced. These are in no sense drill books, but rather are designed to provide the child with the opportunity to discriminate among many possible responses. Since there are only four types of pages in each of the four books, minimum teacher time is required to explain how the children are to use the books. Monotony is avoided by the change of sound patterns encountered as the child progresses through the books.

"Magic cards" in transparent coloring sleeves, which can be re-used, provide needed drill materials in phonics of a self-checking nature. The puzzles provided at these levels are of a much more intellectually subtle nature, calling for finer discriminations and more complex structuring of the intellectual field, than do puzzles used exclusively in preschool and kindergarten.

Primer levels. By the time the children have reached the primer level, they have structured their intellectual field sufficiently well that they can enjoy simple phonics games and word lotto games which reinforce new learnings. At the same time, self-instructional materials used at all preceding levels are still needed by even the most intellectually mature child; hence these should continue to be freely available on the classroom shelves.

Advanced phonics reference books being developed by the Project are given to children at this level of reading ability. The books are presented to each child page by page as the child demonstrates his ability to understand new sound-letter relationships and handle them effectively.

Reading workbooks are also introduced at this level. Each child progresses through his workbook at his own pace, figuring out as many of the pages as he can without help from the teacher. Used in this manner, the workbooks expand the child's developing intellectual structure by requiring of him subtle complex understandings of both reading matter and the related behavior required of him by the task presented.

First-Reader level. Supplementary reading in a variety of commercially available pre-primers and primers during the school day expands the child's reading field at his level of ability, and therefore constitutes a most valuable intellectual experience for him. By this time, also, children have acquired enough understand[illegible] of English phonics so that they can sound out Spanish words in th[illegible] first two bilingual reading books prepared by this Project. So[illegible] the Spanish words out, when coupled with their oral knowledge [illegible] Spanish, enables the children to read in both languages - a s[illegible] of great joy and pride to the children!

At this level of competence, children now begin to app[illegible] the independent reading power that knowledge of phonics gives [illegible] and they work for long periods of time at the "Learning Wall" T[illegible] learning wall, devised by one of the project teachers, repla[illegible] usual bulletin board with large phonics pocket-charts and the accompanying letters. The children assemble and re-assemble the letters to form words in designated phonetic classes; that is, words containing such phonetic elements as "th," "silent e," etc.

Children at this level of ability infrequently resort to three-dimensional materials for structural organization, although these materials may still be provided for "a change of pace."

Second-Reader level. Children at this level continue to use the two-dimensional structural devices previously described: workbooks, phonics discriminating exercises, etc. In addition, such teacher-made games as word lotto, based on basal reader vocabulary or "phonopoly" based on phonetic elements currently being learned, often provide a welcome change of pace. Many of the easier Dolch games are also appropriate for children at this ability level.

A greater variety of supplementary books appropriate for second-graders is now available since these books may be at first-reader level or below.

The two bilingual books "Sam" and "Agents in the Family" are appropriate for children reading at this ability level if their oral knowledge of Spanish is extensive enough to support their phonetic analysis of the written Spanish.

Summary Chart for All Levels

The following chart presents, in organized form, specific self-instructional materials which help the child acquire structural reading skills through self-teaching.

EXAMPLES OF SELF-TEACHING MATERIALS USED IN PROJECT AT DIFFERENT ABILITY LEVELS

Levels	Materials	Source
Preschool and Kindergarten	Shape Sorting Box	Creative Playthings
	Writing frame	Teacher-created
	The "Ing" Book	Project-developed
Pre-primer #1	Phonics workbooks	Project-developed
	Difference Puzzles	Creative Playthings
	Magic cards (consonants & vowels)	Gel-sten
Pre-primer #2	Wood lower- and upper-case letters	Creative Playthings
	Alphabet envelopes	Teacher-created
	Phonics Puzzles	Project-created
Pre-primer #3	Magic cards (consonants (vowels (blanks	Gel-sten
	Vowel dominoes	Palfrey's
	Phonics wheels	Project-created
Primer	Advanced phonics reference books	Project-developed
	Word games	Gel-sten
	Reading workbooks	Individual publishers
First Reader	"Learning Wall" phonics discrimination tasks	Teacher-developed
	Supplementary pre-primers and primers	Individual publishers
	The "S" Book	Project-developed
Second Reader	Lotto - of reader vocabulary	Teacher-developed
	Dolch phonics games	Gel-sten
	Bilingual books	Project-developed

CHAPTER VI

PILOT STUDY OF TEACHERS' AND PARENTS' ACTIVITIES IN THE CLASSROOM[1]

Classroom Teaching Functions

Analysis of teaching behavior is essential to this project. Teaching behavior involves what the teacher does to elicit certain pupil responses to learning tasks. What he does may be a direct or indirect function set within a given pattern of organization and a mode of operation.

We proposed to make an exploratory study of teaching behavior as a partial basis for constructing instruments to be used in a more systematic observation of such behavior. Such observation would include three aspects: teacher function, pupil function and parent function, all related to school-directed experiences. These separate functions would be analyzed as to:

1. Pattern (total group, small group and individualized activities)
2. Teaching mode (story writing, self-instruction, phonics instruction, word discrimination instruction and, in pre-school and kindergarten, oral language instruction)
3. The individual to whom the function was directed (such as teacher function toward parent and/or pupil; pupil function toward another pupil, the teacher and/or parent; parent function toward another parent, pupil and/or the teacher)

Our tasks were (1) to identify specific teaching and learning behaviors occurring in the classroom, (2) to categorize these behaviors as to function, and (3) to construct an instrument and test it for appropriateness and usability. To achieve this goal, each classroom was visited in 30-40-minute intervals, staggered to include each period of the school day. Conversations between teachers and observer followed observations. Such conversations were needed to review accounts of activities, to record the number of pupils participating in various activities, materials used, the sequence of events, and verbal exchanges during the events. A detailed journal of the weekly observations was written with emphasis on what the teacher, pupils and parents did.

Study of these journals revealed that pupil, teacher and parent all perform six distinct functions: (1) initiating activities through verbal and non-verbal means, (2) responding to requests, questions and statements, (3) expanding other's ideas, questions or statements by means of conversation (e.g., extending a sentence or supplying needed words), (4) explaining or showing how, (5) supporting and giving encouragement, and (6) correcting another's learning behavior. The pupil had a seventh function, i.e., correcting his own behavior. The parent also performed a seventh function, i.e., sharing activities, taking turns and doing things with the pupils.

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[1] This chapter, and the research on which it is based, is the work of Dr. Cleo Cook, Professor of Education, California State College at Los Angeles, and a member of the research team.

In recognition of the difficulties entailed in describing teaching behavior, an effort has been made to outline specific acts related to each function category. Let us illustrate by a discussion of the pupil function, "initiating activities."

Example: A kindergarten pupil looked at a poster and copied the word "Mexico" on a sheet of paper. He asked his teacher to read the whole poster, to tell him the word he had written. Having received this information, he went to a self-initiated small group of pupils and showed them what he had written. He moved voluntarily to check other posters and pictures in the room. This occurred during a free period which was geared toward oral language reaction to environment, games, tools, toys, books, involving the total group. The pupil's initiating function was directed toward the teacher and other pupils.

Three observations schedules (pupil function, parent function and teacher function) and directions for observing functions in the classroom were devised. In order to give each observation contextual meaning, the observer is directed to list the activities which are taking place each 15-minute period, making his own judgment as to the things which impressed him most during the observation, and stating the significance of his impression. He is invited to question any aspect of the observed activities and to comment on them.

Trial observations using the instruments were made by the directors of the project and the reporter. As a result, the following suggestions were made regarding future use:

1. Only one schedule (teacher function, pupil function or parent function) should be used by an observer during an observation.

2. At least two observers should observe the same person in each specific function to check further the observable behaviors related to the function categories.

3. Observations should be scheduled to permit three observers to study respectively parent, pupil and teacher function at the same time.

4. Various classroom periods should be video taped; video tapes should be analyzed as to function categories.

Teachers' Feelings and Perceptions of Their Pupils and Their Classroom Functions

Related to teaching function are the teachers' responses to his perceived functions, his feelings about his pupils and their behavior, and his feelings about his working conditions. How did project teachers feel at the end of a school day? How had they perceived their pupils and their pupils' activities?

To get some answers to these questions, teachers were asked to react at will to the form below during an eight-week period from April 19 to June 15, 1967:

Date:

Grade:

This afternoon I feel ____________

Today the pupils did ____________

Today generally the pupils were ____________

The incident(s) that stood out vividly was (were) ____________

The assumption was that without the pressure of a compelled routine or commitment to make a daily response, a teacher's short, candid statement of how he felt himself, how he felt about his pupils and of his impression of chosen incidents would render some insight into the significance the teacher assigned to certain aspects of this project.

At some time or another during the eight-week period, each teacher responded; the average number of responses was 13 per teacher. The 122 responses were distributed by grade level as follows:

LEVEL	NUMBER OF TEACHERS	NUMBER OF RESPONSES
Preschool	2	20
Kindergarten[1]	1	40
First Grade	4	52
Second Grade	2	10
Total	9	122

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[1] It should be noted that the kindergarten teacher has two groups of pupils, a morning group and an afternoon group.

Chart 7 shows the number and per cent of recorded feelings by teachers on 122 responses.

CHART 7

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF RECORDED FEELINGS BY TEACHERS

	RECORDED FEELING	NUMBER	PER CENT
I.	Great, marvelous, wonderful, very good, excited very happy, on top of the world	20	15
II.	Successful, satisfied, very pleased with myself	3	2
III.	Good	15	12
IV.	Full of energy, not too tired for once	2	1
V.	Fine	18	14
VI.	O.K.	15	12
VII.	Tired, overly exhausted, glad it's Friday	23	18
VIII.	Sick, dizzy, headache, have a cold	8	6
IX.	Annoyed, frustrated, out of it	5	4
X.	Sad	1	.7
XI.	Too hot to think	1	.7
XII.	Awful	1	.7
XIII.	No recorded feeling on response sheet	18	14
	TOTAL	130[2]	100

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[2] The total number of stated feelings exceeds the number of response sheets. In six cases, "tired, exhausted, glad it's Friday" added "but very happy about the day." Two of "sick" added "but feel good about my day."

"Recorded Feelings," how teachers felt at the end of the day, have been arranged from the most positive feelings, "I. Great, marvelous, wonderful, very good, very happy, on top of the world," to negative feelings of "IX. Annoyed, frustrated, out of it"; "X. Sad"; "XI. Too hot to think," and "XII. Awful." Eighteen records contained no entry on how the teacher felt, but expanded an account of the day under "What Pupils Did" or "Incidents That Stood Out Vividly."

Teachers reported feeling from at least "O.K." to "Great" in 56 per cent of the cases, and at least "Good" in 43 per cent of the cases.

Within the context of the total reports, only one response of "Fine" meant "Just so so," i.e., on one such response, it was indicated that "children were tired and did not feel like thinking." Noise was reported as a condition of feeling "Fine" twice:

> "I am fine now, although several times noise bothered me. I wasn't very patient with my six-year-olds. They seemed interested in reading today and were acting silly and striving for attention."
>
> "I am fine but tired. Noise bothered me today."

It should be noted that on these two same days, six-year-old children achieved a great deal. They read, wrote and illustrated stories, wrote the alphabet, "studied" numerals 1 to 100, wrote numerals 1 to 100, and made paper folders. While they were reported not to have listened when asked and to have had to be reminded to assume their responsibilities for cleaning up, they "were eager to take their arithmetic papers home." Other than the three cited occasions, the "fine" reported feeling corresponded closely to "good" feeling reported in "What Pupils Did," how teachers said "pupils were" and "The Incidents Which Stood Out Vividly."

The "tired," overly exhausted column, representing 18 per cent of the entries, was viewed not as a negative feeling, but a result of a rewarding day.

In 14 of the 23 responses, "tired" was qualified eight times with such remarks as: "nothing that a little relaxation can't correct," "but happy with the children's progress," "but did quite a lot today" and an additional six supplemented a "tired" response with "but happy about the whole day". A further study of reactions to other questions ("what children did," "how the children were," and "incidents that stood out vividly") by teachers checking the "tired" column show positive concern for, and intensive action toward, achieving the project's goals.

One report about Grade A1 illustrates this reaction:

> "Tired. All of my children read today. Their stories are improving. They are trying to sound out words; initial sounds are going good. The children were quiet. There was emphasis on math in the afternoon. The incidents that stood out most vividly: how everyone attended to his affair. I had more time to read with them. Mario is very angry with me because

> I did not let him go to a new book. What do you do when a child cries for a new book? I insist that children know the vocabulary list of their present book before going to another."
>
> "Glad it's Friday. Pupils did team teaching. They were very busy trying to help their friends get into new books. The incident that stood out most vividly was that Mario got into "Cherry Street." It was graduation day for him. I am all smiles. Children are calling in the custodian to hear them read."

Illness was reported in 6 per cent, and "annoyed, frustrated, out of it" in 4 per cent of responses. Teachers feeling "ill" had the same views about their pupils and vivid incidents as those feeling "good." Annoyance, frustration and feeling "out of it" resulted from the feelings that activities and testing had interrupted the basic program. One experienced frustration in the following words:

> "I feel frustrated, because I need material to be used in problem solving for the development of verbal mediation." In 98° weather, one teacher reported that "the children were hot and tired but they worked nicely. They did arithmetic, reading, writing and some good stories, and their printing was not too bad."

The one sad feeling reported was regret that some children were absent and did not experience the highly successful learning activities of the day.

"No feelings" were recorded in 14 per cent of the responses. One must infer from the reports of what pupils did and the incidents which stood out vividly, as shown in Charts 8 and 9.

In Chart 8, pupils' activities, as reported by teachers, are classified according to how teachers said they felt at the end of the school day. Responses concerning what pupils did may be grouped under (1) familiar curricular activities such as reading, writing, mathematics, etc., (2) quality of working, such as "very well," "poorly," "did extra good work," and (3) ways of working, such as through self-direction, team teaching, small groups and work with parents.

On the basis of teachers' reports, reading activities included: identifying names, working with flash cards, A B C books, and workbooks; each pupil reading at his own pace and each reading with the teacher. Related phonics activities were: directed workbook exercises, work on initial sounds, sounding out words. Conversation referred to such activities as telling one's name with variety in structure: ("My name is ______________; ______________ is my name; I can say my name: ______________"); talking about what we did over the week end, talk games, and ongoing oral expressions.

Writing included names, stories, booklets. Art projects referred to making flowers, working with clay, making Mother's Day projects, cutting and gluing nursery rhyme sequence booklets, painting and making and identifying various shapes. Other curricular activities listed in Chart 8 seem clear.

"Work with parents" needs illustration on the basis of teacher comments. Pupils sought parents' assistance in selecting and using colors and art materials. With parents, children read individually, listened to them read stories, visited the kindergarten, cleaned up, practiced placing and tracing the textured-surface letters of their names, cut and pasted shapes and pictures, talked, and learned in many other ways.

Inspection of Chart 8 reveals that, regardless of the teacher's reported feeling for the day, her list of pupil activities favored the basic reading and language program. Throughout the reports, self-help, help to others, pacing, and pride in learning were emphasized.

Those teachers who reported feeling "great, marvelous, very good, happy" punctuated their descriptions with explanation of their own procedure. For example:

1. Happy. It's great to feel good. The children worked, worked, worked! I feel on top of the world. No kidding, four children were reading together at one table; seven boys were working on creative stories alone; ten children were at the table with me for Fernald Writing, and four were at the reading table.

2. Everything is perfect. All children read. This is the best week I have had this semester. I was able to check every child in reading today and had 10 minutes left before the end of the reading period. During writing, I was able to devote 20 minutes to each group. I would tell them in the beginning at what time I would stop and proceed to the following group. They understood and worked well within the schedule.

3. Wonderful. I love everyone. I am so pleased with the children's progress. All children read.

4. Children worked independently with workbooks, A B C books, readers, flash cards and other educational materials and did Fernald Writing.

From teachers who reported feeling "successful, satisfied, very pleased with myself," the following comment was typical:

> Children read and wrote on their own, did a lot of good work in phonics. The whole week was commendable.

CHART 8

RESPONSES ON WHAT PUPILS DID, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO HOW TEACHERS FELT AT THE END OF THE DAY

	HOW TEACHERS FELT													
PUPILS DID:	I. Great, marvelous, happy, very good, excited.	II. Successful, satisfied, very pleased with self.	III. Good	IV. Full of energy, not tired for once.	V. Fine	VI. O.K.	VII. Tired exhausted, glad it's Friday	VIII. Sick, dizzy, headache, cold	IX. Annoyed, frustrated out of it.	X. Sad	XI. Too hot to think	XII. Awful	XIII. No feeling listed	TOTAL
Reading	7	1	4		5		7	1	1	1		1	3	31
Fernald writing	3		1		6		6	2	1				1	20
Phonics	4		2		2	1	4				1	1		15
Mathematics	2		1	1	5	1	4	2	1		1	1		19
Story writing	3				2		1							6
Conversation			1	1	3			4					1	10
Listening to story telling, book read.	1				3		2	1						7
Dancing, singing	2						2		1				2	7
Physical education								1						1
Art projects					3			1						4
Games; free play			1		2			1					1	5
Very well	3		2	1	5	7	3	3	1				1	26
Extra Good work	3		1	1				1						6
A lot of hard work	2		1		1		3							7
Finished books, projects	1				1									2
Helped others	1		1											2
Had a good day	2	1			2									5
Fair, O.K.					2	6								8
Poorly					1									1
Not too much						1								1
Fine						1								1
Work with parents			2	1									6	9
Team teaching	1		2				2							5
Independent work	3	1	1										2	7
Small group work		1					2						1	4
Self-teaching	1						1							2
Self-direction	1		1										2	4
TOTAL ITEMS REPORTED	39	4	21	5	43	17	37	17	5	1	2	3	20	214
NUMBER OF RESPONSES	20	3	15	2	18	15	23	8	5	1	1	1	18	130

First in number were descriptions of the children: "busy, industrious and actively engaged in their efforts"; the 48 entries in this group constituted one-fourth of all descriptive comments. "Noisy, loud, and high" descriptions followed with 26. The description "busy, industrious" was reported by teachers in eight of the twelve feeling categories. One-half of all descriptions as "noisy, loud, and High" were reported by teachers who were "tired" or "sick." However, six of the teachers who were feeling "great" also characterized the children as "noisy." The following comments are illustrative:

> "Pupils were, as usual, noisy but nice, good workers, very helpful to friends. Pupils were teaching in teams. It was great! I could have stayed home today. I really was not needed. Cooperative!!"

> "Excited, loud, loud, loud! Hard working, helping each other. Interested!!"

Feeling very tired, a teacher wrote, "Children were noisy, busy, with plenty of good learning on!!" Another teacher, feeling tired, said, "loud, busy, hard working, very talkative, made creative stories and pictures!!"

The "tired" reported more "busy" and "noisy" pupils than any other group. They also exceeded other groups in reporting "good" and "self-directing" pupils. It can be seen that being "noisy, loud, and high" was accepted by these teachers and placed within a context of no apparent disturbance; rather, the noise was often viewed as an ingredient of a "good learning" condition.

Noteworthy is the fact that the feeling categories ordinarily considered negative, such as "sick, awful, and annoyed," showed the same views of the children that the "good" categories showed. The "sick" reported no different pupil descriptions from those feeling "good." In both categories, children were reported as "busy," "noisy," "good," "self-directing," "happy workers."

Among teachers who reported feeling "good," the following comments were typical:

1. All children are reading, forcing their own pace. Two boys helped two others get into a new book, "Under the Apple Tree."
2. Lots of reading and studying on their own.
3. Pupils are team teaching, they are busy and working, some of them very well. When we did phonics, they cheered.
4. There was a good number of mothers here today. Children were busy doing something with the supervision of an adult all the time. I could see they felt good about today.

Teachers who checked "tired" also reported positively about the teaching-learning activities:

1. All children read. I am happy about the children's work.
2. Team teaching was very good.
3. Children worked well, did quite a lot today; did well with group participation.
4. Children were so anxious to go to work.

Even those teachers who indicated that they felt "sick," "annoyed," "sad" and "too hot" reported a full pattern of pupil activities. For example, one preschool teacher in this group reported that children listened to stories, read from three books, counted, worked with clay, wrote their names, told stories, danced and played outdoors. Another wrote, "The children did everything eagerly."

The one "awful" report indicated that pupils did phonics, worked with workbooks, flash cards, reading and mathematics. The pupils were eager to work; the class was small. Probably the incident which stood out most vividly gives some insight into this report. The respondent's "car wouldn't start; had bad generator."

How Teachers Viewed Their Pupils

How did project teachers view their pupils at the end of the day? Chart 9 presents teachers' responses to the item: "Today generally the pupils were . . . ." The 130 teachers' responses were grouped according to the twelve feeling categories and ranked in order of frequency.

Responses classifiable under "wild, jumping, nagging, and screaming" were listed ten times in all - four times by teachers feeling "fine," three times by teachers feeling "O.K.," and three by those describing themselves as "tired" or "sick." One teacher who reported herself as "sick" wrote: "The pupils were wild, screaming and hollering, but they worked harder and even cleaned up well."

Pupil restlessness was listed four times out of 130 times, once in each of the following categories: Fine, O.K., Annoyed, and Awful. Their dependence, inattentiveness, lack of interest and talkativeness were each listed three times.

CHART 9

RESPONSES ON HOW PUPILS WERE CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO HOW TEACHERS FELT AT THE END OF THE DAY

	HOW TEACHERS FELT													
PUPILS WERE:	I. Great, marvelous, wonderful, excited ect.	II. Successful, satisfied, pleased with self.	III. Good	IV. Full of energy, not too tired for once.	V. Fine	VI. O.K.	VII. Tired, over exhausted, glad it's Fri	VIII. Sick, dizzy headacke, cold	IX. Annoyed, frustrated, out of it.	X. Sad	XI. Too hot to think	XII. Awful	XIII. No feeling listed	TOTAL
1. Busy, industrious, actively.	7	2	4		5	6	21	1	2					48
2. Noisy, loud, high	6		1		6		11	2						26
3. Good	2		2		2	1	5	1						13
4. Happy	6		1	1	1	1	1	1						12
5. Excited, eager to work enthusiastic, anxious	5		1		2		1		1			1		11
6. Self directing, able to find task and stick to it	1			1	2	1	4	1						10
7. Active, full of vim and vigor, moving from one activity to another		2	2		3	1	2							10
7a. Wild, jumping, fighting nagging, screaming.					4	3	2	1						10
8. Good workers	2				1	1	3	1						8
9. Thoughtful, creative	2				1	2	2							7
10. Helpful, friendly to each other cooperative	4		1			1								6
11. Interested, curious	1	1	1			1	1							5
12. Lovely, beautiful	3						1							4
12a. Restless, tired						1	1		1			1		4
13. Aware of what they are doing.		1	2											3
13a. Dependent					1		2							3
13b. Not listening, disinterested.					2	1								3
13c. Talkative					1	2								3
14. Deeply involved in work		1												1
14a. Growing up	1													1
14b. Prepared to ask for new words.	1													1
TOTAL ITEMS REPORTED	41	7	15	2	32	22	56	7	5			2		189
NUMBER OF RESPONSES	20	3	15	2	18	15	23	8	5	1	1	1	18	130

Reports of Vivid Incidents

Up to this point it has been indicated that teachers tended to report positive feelings at the end of the school day and to view their pupils as active learners engaged in activities in line with the project objectives. Within this context what would teachers record as the incidents which stood out vividly at the end of the day?

Chart 10 presents summary data on the incidents that stood out vividly as reported by teachers; again responses are classified according to the feeling and arranged in the chart in order of decreasing frequency. The incidents that stood out vividly fell under eleven headings listed below, in order of frequency:

1.	Pupil achievement (mastery of skill and completion of task)	48
2.	Pupil motivation (initiating tasks, seeking information, expressing pride in achievement, choosing work over games or play)	38
3.	Parents participation	26
4.	Pupils' feelings, problems	21
5.	Pupil discovery, break through	15
6.	Pupils' general progress	14
7.	Working conditions	12
8.	Pupils' help one to another	10
9.	Teaching techniques, procedures	5
10.	Pupil creative use of devices and procedures	3
11.	Pupil persistence, sticking to a task	3

The teachers' focus on pupil achievement is evident throughout this list. The high position given to parent participation should also be noted.

Incidents related to pupil achievement. Incidents related to pupil achievement were reported by teachers in all feeling categories except *Sick*, *Sad*, and *Awful*. The following illustrate the reports of vivid incidents relating to mastery of skill:

CHART 10

RESPONSES CONCERNING INCIDENTS WHICH STOOD OUT VIVIDLY, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO HOW TEACHERS FELT AT END OF DAY

INCIDENTS THAT STOOD OUT VIVIDLY	HOW TEACHERS FELT													
	I.Great, marvelous, wonderful, excited, ect.	II. Successful, satisfied, pleased with self.	III. Good	IV. Full of energy, not too tired for once.	V. Fine	VI. O.K.	VII. Tired, over exhausted, glad it's Fri.	VIII. Sick, dizzy, headacke, cold	IX. Annoyed, frustrated, out of it.	X. Sad	XI. Too hot to think	XII. Awful	XIII. No feeling listed	TOTAL
1. Pupil achievement mastery of a skill														40
Group	4	1		0	1		3		1				7	(17)
Individual	1	1	1	1	2	1			1				2	(10)
Completion of task (e.g. book)														
Group	4					1	1						2	(8)
Individual	4	1	1			1			1		1		4	(13)
2. Pupil motivation														38
Initiating learning tasks		1	1	1	2	3	2	2					6	(18)
Seeking information	1	1	1	1	2			1						(7)
Expressing pride in achievement	3				2		2							(7)
Choosing work over games, play	2		1		2			1						(6)
3. Parent participation	1		1			1	3	1				19		26
4. Pupil feelings, problems	3	1	2		5	7	3							21
5. Pupil discovery; break-through														15
Group	1								1					(2)
Individual	1		3		3		3	1					2	(13)
6. Pupil's general progress	3	1	1		1		3	1					4	14
7. Working conditions	1		2	1	1		3	1	1	1	1			12
8. Pupils help one another														10
Group	1		1											(2)
Individual	1		2			2	2	1						(8)
9. Teaching techniques procedures		1		1			1	1					1	5
10. Pupil's creative use of devices and procedures			1			1	1							3
11. Pupil persistence, sticking to task	1					1	1							3
TOTAL ITEMS REPORTED	32	8	18	5	21	18	28	9	5	1	2	1	47	195
NUMBER OF RESPONSES	20	3	15	2	18	15	23	8	5	1	1	1	18	130

"Children's stories stand out. I only supplied a word here and there."

"Pupil "M," supposedly slow, figured out by himself how to sound out "sprinkle" (B1 pupil).

"All pupils progressed in phonics. The evidence was in several papers. They showed ability to use their knowledge to write, spell, and find out new words."

"I passed out the music books, and children sang from them This is the first B2 class I ever had to read second-grade music books."

"Children are galloping through their phonics books, understanding what to do and doing a good job."

"Pupil "R" wrote a sentence during writing time. He seems to have some real language difficulty, I was glad to see this progress."

"One girl placed five capital letters on the table and associated them with appropriate first letters of other children's names." (Preschool).

"Pupil "R" finished "Green Story Book." Just the whole day stands out." ("R" had been referred earlier to the language specialist. The specialist was asked to talk with pupil "R," to ask about his home, what language he spoke, etc. The specialist had stated that he did not think pupil "R" spoke English or Spanish and suspected that he might be a condidate for the Mentally Retarded Program).

Incidents related to pupil motivation. Incidents related to pupil motivation stood out vividly in 38 reports. Pupils were reported 18 times as having initiated their own learning tasks. The following incidents are typical:

"Pupil "W" asked if he could learn his telephone number. Others wanted to learn theirs too. Many could write their telephone numbers (kindergarten)."

"Pupil "G" who has shown little interest in reading, brought his own pre-primer and read the entire book to me."

"Pupil "L" slumped in his chair and began reading, completely absorbed in a sixth grade social studies book. I know he can read it, because he came and read it to me. (Second grade). Most of the children are only missing one or two words every three pages."

"All boys in the morning lined up their own chairs in front of the bookcase, looked at and shared books. Pupil "M" counted objects on every page and pointed out the numerals when he was told that 'One is Johnny,' was a counting book."

"Pupil "R" writing, looked up elated, he said 'Teacher, I don't need words from you any more'."

"Fifteen pupils have finished pre-primers and they want to go to extended day classes so they can read some more."

"A visitor came to my P.M. class. Pupil "A" was anxious to read for her. He did well, was most impressive."

"Pupil "M", who has learned to read, write, and recognize letters, exclaimed, "Don't call me 'M' call me super-M."

Incidents involving parent participation. Vivid incidents involving parent participation were reported by 26 teachers. One preschool teacher related experiences showing parent participation resulting in pupil mastery of skills and general progress. The procedure was outlined in detail:

Children wrote the word "father" with the help of the mothers,

1. Each child traced the word on a card with the parent guiding his finger.
2. The child traced by himself.
3. The parent wrote the word on the board.
4. The child traced the word with the help of mother, who again guided his finger.
5. Child again traced the word by himself.
6. Child erased the word.
7. Child wrote the word on the board.
8. Parent erased and wrote the word again.
9. Child again traced the word by himself.
10. Child wrote the word on a card, usually performing very well by this time.

Others reported as follows:

> Parents wanted to know how they could get instructional aids to continue their work during the summer.
>
> Mothers wanted children to make something for Father's Day. They also wanted to have a party for their children on the last day of school. They have formed plans for these projects and will share the cost.
>
> Parents are purchasing more books for their children.
>
> They were amazed at how smart pupil "R" was. I was putting on a teaching demonstration for two parents. Pupil "R" was so responsive. (He only started talking this semester). I told the parents, "Next semester other parents will be amazed at your children's progress." Mothers beamed.
>
> Two parents are making their own informal schedules for working with their children. One mother started working with her daughter. She helped her with her name, worked with numbers with her, read her a story, and then sent her on her way to her own choice of activities.
>
> Today the parents were really emotionally involved during the time children were saying their names to the class. After each child made his presentation, all parents clapped loudly.
>
> A parent led a small group of children. Each child found his name on the name holder, brought it back and stood next to the parent in front of the group. The parent commented loudly, so everyone could hear, "Hey, look!!" I am the teacher now." (Preschool).
>
> I emphasized the individualized approach in working with parents today. I took each parent with her child to a corner. I explained and demonstrated an instructional aid. Midway through this session I turned over the materials to the parent, let her continue as I went to another part of the room. This method seemed to be more effective than explaining an activity to a group of parents. (Preschool).
>
> Children and parents worked together for the first time with dittoed reading readiness materials. Both took to it like ducks to water. During video taping mothers and children went about their work without being disturbed. I have tried to work toward this level of concentration by not stopping parents for introduction to visitors. I have tried to give parents the feeling that they were not performing for an audience.

> All mothers participated in the dance festival. One was anxious about participation; one was concerned about making a mistake. Both danced with their children well and were very proud. At least one-half of the parents and children returned to the classroom after the dance, although they knew that they could leave. Parents didn't want to go home yet. Other parents wanted to enroll their children in the preschool program today. The same thing happened last year after the dance festival.
>
> Two parents taught the class for most of the day. They feel very confident. They made a nursery rhyme booklet with the children, in my absence. They used procedures different from mine but achieved very effective results. I mentioned how essential parent-teacher cooperation was and complimented their action. (Preschool.)
>
> One mother was telling all the adults how her husband was against pupil "H" coming to school at the early age of three. She said, "Now that he see the difference in "H," he never misses a chance to show him off in front of friends ... "H" knows how to read and spell his name. He gets all excited everytime he sees a word that begins with "H" and says, 'My name begins that way'."

To get further evidence concerning parents' reactions to their participation in the classroom and the Project in general, eleven parents who had so participated were asked to respond to La Opinion Del Padre Participante En El Proyecto Especial (see Appendix). According to their responses, parents felt that the project was of outstanding advantage to their children. It helped the parents understand their children, to assist them at home. Parents also rated as outstanding their own contribution to the project. This is shown in the number of responses below:

Questions from English edition	Degree of advantage reported					
	Outstanding	Good	Fair	Poor	None	No reply
How do you feel about the program in general?	9	2				
How did the project help our children?	11					
How did the project help your child?	9	2				
For you as a parent was the project worthwhile?	10	1				
Did the project help you to better understand your child?	11					

	Degree of advantage reported					
	Outstanding	Good	Fair	Poor	None	No reply
Did the project help your child at home?	10	1				
Of how much advantage was your participation in the project?	8	1				2

Parents worked in many ways with the children. Their reported activities are shown below:

Activity	Number reporting
Reading with children	8
Helping them write their names	11
Teaching them names of colors	10
Teaching them to use scissors	11
Initiating conversation with them	8
Participating in games with them	11
Taking them to the rest room	7
Correcting their behavior	11
Correcting their work	11
Helping them count	9
Contributing ideas and recommending other activities	5
Contributing materials of instruction	5
Constructing materials of instruction	4

In assessing the value of their contributions the parents said that the following things helped the project most:

1. A parent taking part in the classroom with her own child as well as others.
2. Helping children learn names, numbers, and to speak in English.
3. Helping children attend school as much as possible.
4. Helping children understand print.
5. Helping individual children, permitting the teacher to work with all.
6. Counseling children as to how they should behave in accordance with the teacher's instruction.

Incidents involving pupil feelings and problems. Pupil feelings and/or problems were reported in 21 incidents which were reported by teachers as standing out vividly. Incidents were related to signs of pupils' affection, enthusiasm or lack of it, appreciation, delight, as well as need for specific help in the affective area. These incidents may be illustrated by the following quotations from teacher questionnaires:

> "Pupil "C" at writing time said, "See I am learning a lot of words!" She is one who never shows any emotion. Her face was actually radiant as she continued to ask for words. I have never seen her express this attitude toward writing."
>
> "Pupil "B" wasn't enthusiastic any more. Said his mother always threw away his paper when he was making flowers."
>
> "One of my boys gave me his eraser and then hugged me and put his head on my shoulder."
>
> "The status pupil "K" attained with her representational drawing of the turtle. She speaks very little and up to this time had made very few friends."
>
> "I talked with several children about their Spanish. I asked if they spoke English and if they got tired sometimes trying to understand English. I could tell by their grins that I had hit home. Pupil "W" in particular seemed relieved that I had some understanding of her problems. We discussed this for a while." (Second grade).

Incidents involving pupil discovery or break-through. In fifteen items teachers reported incidents related to pupil discovery or break-through. Discovery occurred at different levels, from a pupil's simply discovering the classroom turtle and reacting to it to the entire B1 class discovering that they could write stories, sentences, whole pages full, and NOT AT WRITING TIME. In regard to pupils' writing one teacher wrote:

> Something happened which might account for this,--the new lined paper, smaller than usual without the faint line.
>
> "Pupil "Q" who doesn't like to paint, was inspired to do four paintings and wanted to do more; Pupil "Z" was able to walk the turtle around the kindergarten yard with extreme patience."
>
> "Pupil "J" asked for the words, Long Ranger. Teacher told him that Tonto's friend was the Lone Ranger. "J" replied, "He is not alone. He has his friend Tonto. It must be Long Ranger." (No persuasion).

> "One asked for the word Statue. Teacher wrote it. Pupil asked, "Where is the "choo"?"

Incidents involving pupils general progress. General progress made by pupils was reported in fourteen incidents, such as:

> "Children are going amazingly well"; "Children are behaving adult like"; "Children are progressing."

Incidents involving working conditions. Specific conditions (such as heat, rain with resulting small attendance, and annoyance with testing) were listed twelve times. One teacher reporting seven or eight pupils absent, said, "It makes a difference between a good job and a half-way one, and a lot of difference in the way I feel."

Incidents involving pupil help one to another. Incidents involving pupils' help to each other were reported ten times, two in group and eight in individual situations. They are illustrated by the following:

> "Many pupils in the class helped others in reading today. There is a very warm, friendly feeling. Much patience!!"
>
> "Pupil "L" came toward me with his work as if to ask me a word. He stopped and asked pupil "G" for help instead. I was surprised but glad that they are helping each other so well."
>
> "M" helped "A" finish *Red Story Book*. Pupil "J" who can hardly read *At Home* was teaching our new girls the flash-cards. He got impatient when she said "Daddy" for "Midnight."

Incidents involving teaching techniques and procedures. Teaching techniques and procedures were reported only five times. Delight in the success of team teaching, involving sixth grade pupils and university students, was reported three times; individualization of instruction within a comfortable and successful schedule was reported once; and the discovery that the *ING* book, developed by one project teacher, was now much too easy for the pupils, was reported once.

Incidents involving pupils' creative use of devices. Teachers reported incidents showing creativity on the part of pupils three times. Pupil "S" was a Roman from outer space and went around christening others to be Romans. One changed a language game, and one improvised a skating device from blocks. These were important within the context of pupils' felt freedom and need.

Incidents involving pupil persistence: sticking to task. Teachers reported pupils' persistence, sticking to task, three times. Pupils worked throughout work periods; so absorbed that they did not wish to leave for recess or to go home.

SUMMARY STATEMENT

It is evident that pupil achievement in the mastery of basic skills, the completion of tasks, and pupil motivation are very important goals to the project teachers. The incidents reported above indicate that the teachers tried to achieve these goals through three avenues:

1. The creation of conditions out of which pupils may initiate and conduct their own learning, help one another, seek help, and progress at their own individual pace.
2. The encouragement of parent participation in the teaching-learning acts.
3. An effort to be aware of pupils' feelings and an attempt to help them to solve feeling and self-esteem problems as well as academic problems.

Teachers feel good when there is evidence that these goals are being attained in some degree. Fatigue is a factor easily understood when teachers work to such ends within a classroom of thirty children.

CHAPTER VII

A COMMUNITY REPORT ABOUT THE MALABAR PROJECT[1]

Early in my contacts with the Malabar Reading Project and the rest of the operation of Malabar as a public school, I felt that an effort was being made there to disprove the professional stereotype that the parents of Mexican-American children weren't at all interested in the education of their children. This stereotype generally spread by less sensitive educators, and by many "authorities" in school administration, was part of the dogmatic preparation, which supposedly sensitized the Anglo teachers to the needs of Mexican and Mexican-American pupils. Its frustrating effect was even felt by some educators of Mexican descent who, however doubtful of its validity, had no real proof to support their doubts.

Home Visits and Parent Participation in Classrooms

Teachers visited the children's homes. The school sent bilingual notes home, questioning parents as to what subject areas they felt their children needed.

In addition, Frank Serrano, preschool teacher, made home visits to encourage the parents to come into the classroom. The preschool classes were filled within a matter of hours, both mothers and children in attendance. The preschool was underway. These motherly efforts soon began to acquire meaning and purpose. More confident of her role as a real teacher, the mother in the room began to operate in a sophisticated manner.

Now she notices the reading problems and differences of each child in the group; now it is not only success that impresses her; but also the lack of progress that children sometimes show; now she makes every effort to report daily to help; and now she injects greater value into the curriculum by her presence. The mother returns by easy stages to that part of her original role of which modern civilization and the alleged expertise of the professional had dispossessed her: her role of teacher. She begins to exercise her privilege of participating in the education of her own child.

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[1] We gratefully acknowledge the assistance of Mr. Edward Moreno in the preparation of this chapter. Mr. Moreno is Director of the Centro Pre-Vocacional , a Federally-funded program in East Los Angeles; formerly News Director, Spanish language radio station, KALI.

The development of the Malabar School was reported to the parental community on radio. There was tremendous response, as evidenced by the numbers of telephone calls and written inquiries to the station.

Parent Organizations

About this time, also, a separate Fathers' Club and a Mothers' Club were formed, with the provision that both will have to meet together frequently. Soon sessions on topics interesting to the parents were organized, each with increasing parental assistance, until a maximum attendance of more than 600 parents was reached at an evening function.

The celebration of "Open House Night" becomes one more disagreeable chore when school and community haven't yet learned to relate to each other. Nothing can be more boring for a Mexican-American parent than to have to wait in line for trite expressions about "the child's progress". Nothing horrifies a Latin mother more than to have to face an "alien" educator who, in addition to her patronizing attitude, tries to get rid of the mother as soon as possible, because there is nothing in common between them. Nothing is gained in this little game of deception; even the summary pupil evaluation is too formal and impersonal. The teacher has her conviction about the stupidity of Mexican parents reinforced, and the mother is more convinced than ever that teacher is just too cold, and too aloof, and too well paid.

But for a new program which required greater involvement between teacher and child, as well as between school and community, an innovation of another type was also required. The grapevine had already begun to produce first-hand information about what kind of program Malabar was implementing and what kind of relationship was possible with Anglo and non-Anglo teachers. The next "Open House Night" turned out to be a much more pleasant and meaningful affair. Parents lingered in rooms, and several asked pointed questions in relation to the academic program. However, communication did not open totally. Some parents still felt left out. The affair pointed to the need for immediate corrective and more positive steps; so two new projects were born.

The first was "Open School Year" in which each parent was urged to come to school "at any hour of the day, during classes or after; to visit the class, or the offices; to discuss progress or problems." From this policy, a torrent of meaningful opinion, comment and suggestion was obtained.

The second outgrowth of the "Open House Night" was that of having the parents contribute, in writing, ideas for the formulation of curricula for the ensuing semesters. A questionnaire was sent to every home with each child, tapping the interest of the parents in areas of academic concern. More than ninety per cent of the parents returned the questionnaire. Thus, classes in reading, math, spelling, writing and Spanish, beginning in that order, were established in the Saturday and after-school classes. Parents' comments at the end of the questionnaire were particularly helpful. For example: "I believe a little more homework would help." "Please, just 'after-school classes', not Saturday. Saturdays and Sundays are the only days I spend with my child." "I think the extra classes is a very good idea for our children. I would also like them to know what Cultural Heritage means." "I think it would be to the child's advantage to learn Spanish as a second language. I lost out in many a good job in this city because I didn't know this language." Thus, out of the wisdom of the people came the idea of letting the children learn their cultural heritage.

Transmission of Cultural Values

America, despite its multicultural origins, throws away a great part of the tradition and cultural contributions of the various ethnic groups which compose the nation, keeping only the tiny bits which can be woven into the national fabric without great exertion. In this process, great parts of ethnic identity values are also wasted. The end result of this process is not necessarily attractive nor satisfying. Frequently, an anxious insecurity results from not having a solid background of tradition to which one can run when all else seems unstable. The urban culture seems to hasten this process of value loss.

Here, too, Malabar took another giant step in education. Malabar decided to "take a chance" and to allow the teaching of Mexican cultural values and the richness of the Hispanic cultures to the children who would attend some "after-school classes". Some teachers even carried the experiment to the regular school hour and, in their social science classes, they recognized the cultural contributions of the Hispanic peoples. Soon the project was extended to include the celebration of National Holidays; Columbus Day was also called "El Dia de La Raza", as it is known in Hispanic America; Benito Juarez was recognized side by side with the great liberator, Lincoln; Hidalgo and his Independence were included in the discussion of the history of California. Even children's songs were sung in Spanish, in addition to the regular renditions of the standard American songs.

The Mexican-American majority began to acquire a greater sense of pride and responsibility. Other minority children at Malabar began to develop an attitude of interest and respect for Mexican cultural values. Soon Japanese-American children wanted to learn to dance "The Jarabe", Negro children became interested in chapanecas, and the Anglo-Saxon children wanted to wear the beautiful charro costumes of Jabisco.

In this process of cultural rebirth, the Instituto Norteamericano Mexicano de Intercambio Cultural, a cultural organization sponsored by the Mexican government, lent a valuable contributing hand. Miss Graciela Tapia, their dance teacher, came to Malabar to give the children a taste of the cultural riches of the countries below the border. And what began as a small group soon became a large group of over 150 who wanted to be with her and sing with her and enjoy with her the beauty of their newly discovered cultural heritage.

Miss Tapia, in addition to being an accomplished performer and teacher of the dance and Mexican folklore, is an excellent storyteller. Her specialty was developed by the Department of Education of Mexico to foster survival of the traditional cultural values in a nation which is industrializing at an accelerated rate. To her dance and song performances, she added the narrative and a smattering of history and legend and she became soon, herself, a legendary figure in the world of the children. How much Miss Tapia enjoyed the experience and how much the teacher learned from the children are expressed in her letter on the succeeding page.

Home Libraries

At a meeting in the spring semester, the parents expressed the wish that the children could continue to read during the coming summer months. Almost magically, from that meeting, the concept of the "Summer Home Libraries" was evolved. Books were obtained from several "sources"; fifteen families volunteered to run small neighborhood libraries of approximately one hundred volumes each. The books were proudly carried home from the following meeting, and, without further organization, the home libraries were in operation. Their success is dramatically revealed in the following excerpts from reports written by the parents at the end of the summer.

1. I didn't have too many children, just from my own neighborhood. I read a book every night to my own children. We need more variety of books, more library books.

2. Our library went very, very well. Last week, I stopped my once-a-week library. It was so hot and the children were getting tired and restless. I only had 14-17 children in weekly all summer for story time. I even had one eighth grader. Unfortunately, the older children wanted library books and I only had a few, mostly textbooks. They wanted story books. The boys liked the science books, though. They would take them home and do the experiments and bring them back to show us.

I never had a group before and I had some trouble, but I told them this was library time and not play time. At first, I let them take one book and then two. Sometimes, I didn't have enough books;so I assigned one book to two kids.

I had one experience that was very rewarding. I know it's only one child but that little boy read and read and read. I went across the street and told his mama and asked her if she had heard her child read. She said, "No, I don't have time, but he did get a good grade in reading."

Mrs. Hartwick, I've been told that this community has very poor readers in this area, but this boy read and read.

3. It didn't go too well. I didn't have any children come from out in the community. But it didn't go to waste. All my children and all their friends who came to play used the books. I think we need up-to-date science books on space. I felt terrible when some sixth grade boys came and asked for books on rockets. They had a project and a little space club and were building a space ship at home, and I felt terrible I didn't have any books for them. I think it's a real good deal, though.

4. Some books were hard to read, but the older ones sorted them out. At first, we didn't have a place to put them so I built a shelf on the front porch, but the children played with them, so I had to bring them into the living room. We have a very small place but it's just my opinion and I can't speak for any one else; but if you care enough, you'll find room.

   Even my baby (well, I call him my baby - he's four) was picking out books and reading - well, pretending to read - well, looking at the pictures. He tries to read and he repeats and repeats all the words the other children are saying, like "mother, father, pony." He says, "pony, pony, pony" all day long.

   My husband got a lot of books for them. He had a big box of books. They were good books, new, but uh, not books the children could read - you know - love stories without any pictures, and he took them to a place where you can exchange them and brought home a whole lot of books for the kids.

5. Lately, they haven't touched them, but at first they were all excited.

   The kids didn't open one bunch of books because they knew they couldn't read them.

6. I had bad luck. Only my children and their friends used the books. Their father helped them. We were happy to have the books.

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Los Angeles, California 90045

Estimado Sr. Castro:

Me es grato informar a usted los resultados del programa cultural llevado acabo durante los meses de Febrero a Junio del presente año, con los alumnos de la Escuela Malabar. Mi impresión es el de haber logrado un resultado absolutamente satisfactorio; primero por haber logrado despertar el interés de los niños Mexico-Americanos en la Cultura Mexicana, por medio de la danza, la música, los cantos en español, pequeños comentarios sobre Historia Patria, y Geografía y segundo porque trabajando en grupo se logró diciplina y armonia. Los niños se mostraron totalmente identificados con el país de origen de sus padres y antepasados dándoles una sensación de orgullo y seguridad.

La reacción de los padres de familia, tambien fue muy favorable, comentando en sus cartas dirigidas a mí: "El orgullo de que sus hijos conocieran la civilización de sus antepasados"

Mi mayor éxito y satisfacción es el haber logrado que los niños después de vencer cierta timidez, se expresaran tanto al hablar como al escribir en Español, quizás no muy perfecto pero lleno de calor y deseo de aprender y de identificarse, como lo hicieron con nuestras danzas auctóctonas.

En mi opinión dicho programa para los Niños Mexico Americanos es de gran importancia, y para los niños Norte-americanos de ascendencia no Mexicana, puede ser una ayuda más en el desarrollo de su educación y su cultura en general.

Ha sido una experiencia muy interesante que me ha llenado de satisfacción. Ojalá me encuentre otra vez en la posibilidad de ayudar y encausar a la juventud en general, colaborando asi al magnífico programa que se viene desarrollando en la ciudad de Los Angeles, Calif., en favor y protección de la Comunidad Mexico-Americana.

Muy Atentamente,

Graciela Tapia

GRACIELA TAPIA

Other Evidence of Community Interest

Another manifestation of community interest was evidenced by a letter from the Association of Mexican-American Educators which is given on page 102.

Still further evidence of community interest was obtained in February 1968, when the following letter (in both Spanish and English) was sent home by each of the 1400 children enrolled at the Malabar School.

> Dear Parents,
>
> For the past two years we have been trying to improve our instruction in reading for your children. We think that reading skill is very important to school success. We have been seeking your help in improving our children's reading and writing skills.
>
> In order that we continue to provide the best possible educational program in all grades we wish you would take time to evaluate your school and write your recommendations below. What is your opinion about - reading, homework, discipline, Spanish language, report cards, or anything else? Please help us make your school better by writing to us tonight.
>
> Sincerely,
>
> Jacqueline Hartwick, Principal

It is estimated that the Malabar children represent approximately five hundred families. Hence the 149 parents replying represent a 30 per cent return.

Of these 149 returns, 53 were in Spanish, and were translated.

All of the parent replies are given *verbatim* in Appendix D. Those translated from Spanish are reported separately.

Although an attempt was made to summarize parents' comments, the attempt was soon abandoned. Too much subjectivity is involved in classifying reactions. Moreover, the research team concluded that presentation of a summary was no substitute for the reader's sampling for himself the *verbatim* comments as made by parents.

In his study of parent comments, the reader will note the great interest parents show in the intellectual development of their children, their eagerness to help their children progress, and their concern that their sons and daughters become proficient in English while still retaining their ability to converse in Spanish and their respect for their own cultural traditions.

The most frequently recurring emphasis in all of the parent communications was on the importance of their children getting a good start in reading. Many expressed appreciation for the phonetic approach and other aspects of the Project program. Parents have been especially interested in knowing how their children score on the state-required standardized tests in reading. Hence, the two charts which follow were prepared for use in interpreting the results to parents.

The first chart summarizes the data in terms of stanine scores, showing that the percentage of children in A1 project classes at stanine 3 and above has increased from 7.5 per cent in 1966 to 55 per cent in 1968, while the per cent in the lowest stanines was correspondingly reduced. The second chart interprets the data for the same groups in terms of grade equivalents. The per cent scoring above a grade placement of 1.4 increased from 25 per cent in 1966 to 75 per cent in 1968.

Results of city-wide testing also show on improvement at the A1 level for the entire school, as shown in the memoranda for 1967 and 1968 in Appendix A. It will be noted that the average score for all A1 pupils was at the 8th percentile in January, 1968, as compared with the 3rd percentile in January, 1967.

Association of Mexican-American Educators, Inc.

STATE OF CALIFORNIA

January 22, 1968

Mrs. Jacqueline Hartwick, Principal
Malabar Street School
3200 East Malabar Street
Los Angeles, California 90063

Dear Mrs. Hartwick:

At the January 19 meeting of the East Los Angeles Chapter, the Reading Project for Mexican-American children at Malabar was discussed.

The membership, cognizant of the need for new approaches in reading, feels that the Malabar Project is an example of the kind of innovation our schools need in order to meet the needs of our children.

We are aware of the involvement and support of the community and of the success of the project. We realize that the project has not undergone a final evaluation; however, what is important is that this project could not have begun without the willingness of your teachers to leave the beaten path, throw off old habits and methods, and attempt something new and exciting.

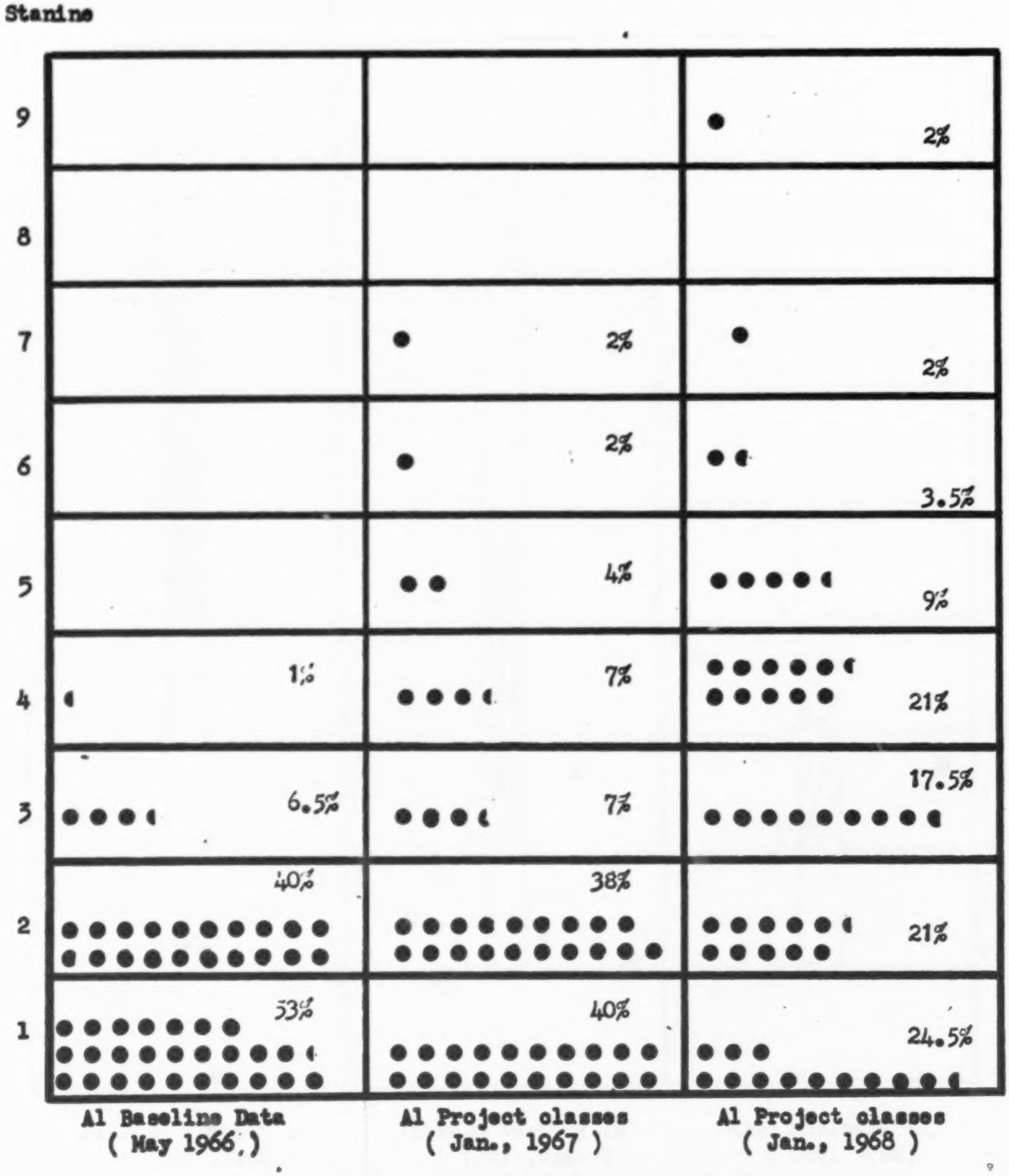
Upon the recommendation of the Chapter membership, it is my pleasure to extend our congratulations to you, Miss Connie Amstead, and each and every teacher participating in the project.

Respectfully,
Vincent C. Villagran
Vincent C. Villagran
President
East Los Angeles Chapter - AMAE

CC: Mr. Herbert Cadwell
Dr. Julian Nava
Mr. Edward Moreno

Comparison of stanines on Stanford Reading Test for January 1968 with those for January 1967 and with Baseline Data (May 1966)

MALABAR PROJECT READING TEST DATA

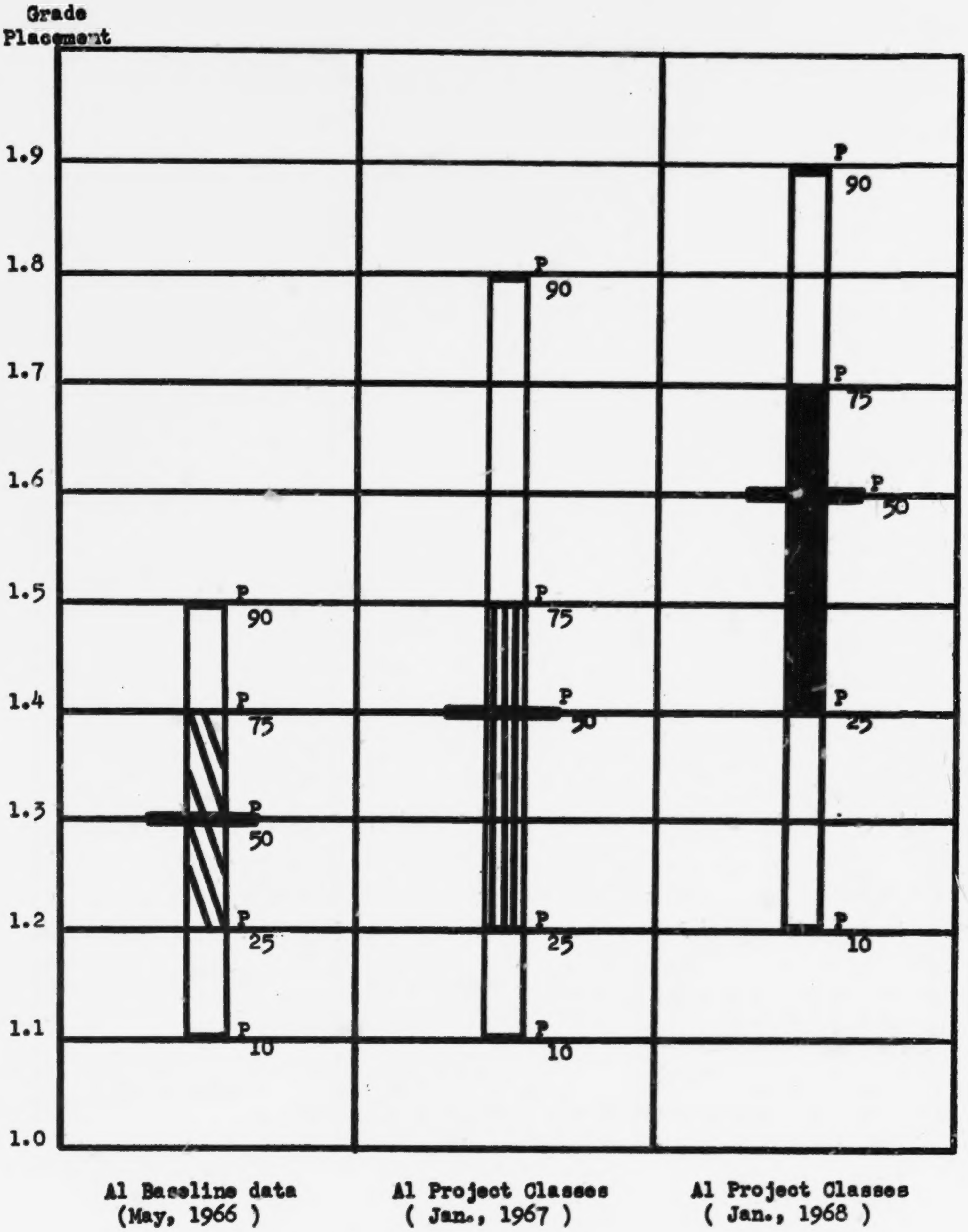


STANFORD PRIMARY I - STANINES FOR TOTAL READING

LEGEND: Each represents 2 per cent

NOTE: 7.5 per cent of the 1966 A1 pupils scored in stanine 3 or above, as compared with 22 per cent in 1967 and 55 per cent in 1968.

MALABAR PROJECT READING TEST DATA, MAY 1966, JANUARY 1967, JANUARY 1968



STANFORD PRIMARY I, GRADE PLACEMENTS FOR TOTAL READING

NOTE: 25 per cent of the 1966 A1 pupils, 50 per cent of the 1967 pupils, and 75 per cent of the 1968 pupils scored at or above a grade placement of 1.4.

3

PART TWO

RESEARCH ON ORAL LANGUAGE

CHAPTER VIII

METHODOLOGY OF ORAL LANGUAGE ANALYSIS

In the first interim report, the initial or first-level analysis was made of the Oral Language Interviews for first, second, and third grade children scoring high and low in reading achievement. This first-level analysis involved segmenting the typescript into syntactic units for analysis. Each word or sound was classified under one of the following classifications:

1. Reportage responsums (message-carrying responses that are incomplete predications);[1.1]

2. T-units (message-carrying responses that are minimal terminable units); and

3. Maze material (consisting of hesitations, false starts, incomprehensible passages, and incomplete predications which cannot be classified as message-carrying).

The rationale behind the choice of these units, and the directions for segmenting the typescript in this way, are given in the first interim report.

The percentages of words of these three types were computed for each child. Inter-rater reliability for all three types exceeded .80. Per cent of words in T-units, and mean length of T-unit, increased consistently with grade level. None of these derived scores, however, differentiated between readers who were classified as "high" or "low" in reading ability (i.e. ranking within the highest or lowest one-third of their grade with respect to reading achievement).[1]

Recommendations for the second year of study were made in this first interim report. They included recommendations for:

1. Further study of the basic structures outlined above (e.g. mean length of the child's three shortest and three longest T-units).

[1.1] For this measure and for a number of the measures at the second-level analysis, the work of Jerome A. Hutto is acknowledged.

[1.2] Corrected raw score in Total Reading, Stanford Reading Test, Primary I.

2. Evidence of complexity of the child's T-units (.e.g total number of clauses, mean length of clauses, mean number of clauses per T-unit, and per cent of clauses of each major type (adjectival, adverbial, and noun clauses).

3. Evidence of the variety of the child's oral language (e.g. mean number of different sentence patterns used, and type-token ratio).

Early in the second year, the decision was made to study many more measures of complexity and variety than those listed above, including several devised especially for this study. In order to make this undertaking feasible, the second-level analysis was limited to a sampling of approximately 300 words[2] for those typescripts in which the child spoke more than 300 words following the warm-up period.

In the first interim report twenty additional measures were suggested. With few exceptions, these measures have been used in the second year's work; and many additional measures have been devised. The seventy-six measures used in the oral language analysis are described in this chapter section.

Additional Measures of Basic Structure

The decision was made in August, 1967 to make a computer analysis of the seventy-six measures of oral language which were being obtained for each child. It seemed advisable, therefore, to punch only raw scores (e.g. number of words in mazes) and have the computation of percentages and ratios done by computer. It was also decided that whenever errors in first-level analysis were discovered during the process of second-level analysis, these should be corrected before the cards were punched. For this reason, the first-level analysis for the first three grades has been redone and presented in the first table of Chapter IX. The slight discrepancies between these results and those presented in the first interim report reflect greater accuracy, both in the language analysis and in computation. In no case, however, were major discrepancies found.

Two additional measures of basic structure were added to the analysis: (1) mean length of the three longest T-units and (2) mean length of the three longest T-units without variations or errors (of the types classified by Loban[3] and enumerated later in this chapter). Both of these measures were obtained for the 300-word sample.

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[2] Directions for obtaining the language samples so as to be as representative as possible of the three sections of Oral Language Interview are given in Appendix A. Directions for obtaining three 100-word samples of the spontaneous speech of preschool and kindergarten children are also given in Appendix A.

Since length of T-unit will vary with the topic being discussed, and since the spontaneous conversation of preschoolers and kindergarten children includes many short imperative sentences, it seemed advisable to supplement mean T-unit length with a measure which would more accurately reflect the child's maximum level of performance, i.e. mean length of his three longest T-units. However, study of the typescripts revealed that some of the longest T-units involved awkward expressions and syntactic confusion; hence the "mean length of the three longest T-units without variations" provided additional valuable information about the child's language.

Measures Used in the Second-Level Analysis

Predication patterns and verb types. Each T-unit was classified into one of six types, as follows:

I Subject + Intransitive Verb
II Subject + Linking Verb + Predicate Adjective
III Subject + Linking Verb + Predicate Nominative
IV Subject + Transitive Verb + Direct Object
V Subject + Transitive Verb + Indirect Object + Direct Object
VI Subject Holder + Intransitive Verb + Subject

This classification is very similar to the one used by Loban[4] in his longitudinal study of language development. The major differences are these:

1. Loban classifies in one group all sentences of the type: Subject + Linking Verb + Complement; whereas this study classifies separately those T-units in which the linking verb is followed by a predicate adjective as distinguished from those in which the verb is followed by a predicate nominative (Types II and III respectively).

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[3] Walter Loban, Problems in Oral English (Champaign: National Council of Teachers of English, Research Report No. 5, 1966).

[4] Loban, Language Ability: Grades Seven, Eight, and Nine, Monograph No. 18, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1966), p. 10.

2. Another difference is that our list does not include Loban's Type Five (Subject + Transitive Verb + Direct Object + Outer Complement, e.g. They elected Mary president). This pattern did not occur with Loban's children until the sixth grade; we did not find T-units of this type in our material.

3. The final difference is that Loban had special classifications for interrogative and imperative sentences, however, we preferred to classify these T-units according to the type of predication patterns used, as well as to classify them further as interrogative or imperative sentences. By so doing, we could obtain a measure of variety (to be explained later) which reflected the classification of T-units as indicative, interrogative, or imperative, as well as the predication patterns listed above and types of verbs (listed below).

The fifteen categories into which all finite verbs were classified are given in Appendix A. Only the following types are listed in the tables since they were the only ones used by more than one per cent of Malabar children:

Type 1	present tense (go, say)
Type 2	present progressive (am going, are saying)
Type 4	past tense (went, said)
Type 5	past progressive (was going, were saying)
Type 13	modal auxiliaries (other than shall or will) + base form of verb (can go, must say)
Type 14	such auxiliaries + infinitive (ought to go, used to say)
Type 15	variations of present and past progressive (keeps going, get shot)

In this study of both predication patterns and verb types, both main and subordinate clauses were analyzed.

Adverbials. Through the use of adverbial constructions, the children can express more concisely in a single unit thoughts that might have been expressed in two or three separate T-units. For example:

"I have a dog."
"He runs fast."
"He runs after cars."

might be condensed through the use of an adverb and adverbial phrase into the sentence: "My dog runs fast after cars." Only those adverbial constructions which modified verbs and adverbs were studied. Four types of adverbials were tabulated: intensifiers, adverbs, adverbial phrases, and adverbial clauses. The number of each was counted for each child's transcript.

As bases for judging the extent to which these children use adverbial constructions as substitutes for additional T-units, ratios were computed between the number of each of these four types of adverbials and the number of verbs in the sample studied. The total number of adverbial constructions was also computed for each child, as well as its ratio to number of verbs in his language sample.

We were also interested in the complexity of these adverbial constructions. For example, in the illustrative sentence, "My dog runs fast after cars," the verb "runs" is modified by two adverbials (i.e. an adverb and an adverbial phrase); if the intensifier "very" were added, the verb (which is the head for this adverbial construction) would have three adverbial modifiers. Hence, the ratio of adverbials/heads was computed. Since in this part of the language analysis only verbs were recognized as heads for adverbial constructions, this ratio is called "Ratio of adverbials/verbs modified."

Nominals. In Appendix A are listed the twenty-five different types of nominal constructions tabulated. The five types most frequently used by these children are as follows:

Type Ia	(single-word nominals, nouns + determiners, proper names)
Type Ib	(unmodified noun adjuncts)
Type IIa	(one adjective modifier[5] + Ia or Ib)
Type IIc	(simple prepositional phrase modifier + Ia or Ib)
Type IIIb	(nouns, noun adjuncts or pronouns inflected as possessives)

As a basis for computing a variety measure (explained later) each nominal was classified under one of these twenty-five types; however, only the five types listed above were considered in the study of nominal constructions, with all others being grouped into a single category of "infrequently used nominals."

The definition of nominal used by Hunt has been employed in this study, i.e. "any of the structures that function as subject of a verb, or as direct object, predicate nominal after a copula [linking verb] object of a preposition, etc. A noun plus its adjoining modifiers is a nominal, but predicate adjectives, for example, are not part of the subject nominal. The noun which is modified is the head of the whole nominal structure."[6]

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[5] All numbers, such as one hundred, are counted as a single modifier.

[6] Kellogg W. Hunt, Grammatical Structures Written at Three Grade Levels, Research Report No. 3. (Champaign: National Council of Teachers of English, 1965), p. 99.

It will be noted that noun adjuncts(Type Ib) have been tabulated separately, rather than considered as Ia + an adjective modifier, which would be classified as IIa. The reason for considering the noun adjunct as less complex than Type IIa is explained by Hunt as follows:

> Whether a student will use an uninflected noun to modify another noun, thus producing a noun adjunct or compound like art lesson or apple pie, is not a matter of personal choice in the same way that the use of most modifiers is. A child probably learns many such expressions as single names of things. It should not be surprising, then, that the frequency of this structure fluctuated from grade to grade, depending on factors which have nothing to do with maturity.[7]

Measures of Subordination

Each subordinate clause was identified and classified as belonging to one of three types: adverb, adjective, or noun clauses. The total number of subordinate clauses was used, in combination with data on number of T-units, to obtain both the more conventional subordination ratio, and a new index of subordination, developed by Hunt. The difference between the two measures, both of which can be computed from the same data, is evident from a comparison of the following formulae:

$$\text{Subordination ratio} = \frac{\text{no. of subordinate clauses}}{\text{total no. of clauses (main + subordinate)}}$$

$$\text{Ratio of clauses to T-units} = \frac{\text{total no. of clauses (main + subordinate)}}{\text{no. of main clauses}}$$

In the denominator of the second fraction, the number of T-units can readily be substituted for the number of main clauses since the two figures would be the same for any language sample. Hunt, of course, makes this substitution.[8]

One advantage of Hunt's index is that one can multiply it by mean clause length to obtain (or to check on computation of) mean T-unit length. Another advantage is that this ratio minus one indicates the proportion of T-units that contain subordinate clauses.

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[7] Ibid., p. 104.

[8] Ibid., p. 33.

For example, since the ratio of clauses to T-units is 1.07 for our first-graders and 1.20 for third-graders, we know that first-graders added a subordinate clause to a main clause only 7 per cent of the time, while third-graders did this 20 per cent of the time.

Mean length of clause was obtained by dividing the number of T-unit words in the sample by the total number of clauses. This method, proposed by Hunt[9] makes it unnecessary to count the number of words in each clause; hence the complication of trying to divide the number of words between the two clauses in this type of sentence is avoided: "Mary said she was ready." In such a T-unit, it would be arbitrary to count only the first two words in the main clause since a transitive verb is incomplete without its object.

The number of verbals in each child's language sample, as well as the number of verbals per T-unit, were computed. Loban[10] emphasizes that infinitives, participial phrases, and gerunds enable the speaker to express concisely a thought that a less mature speaker might express in an additional sentence.

Measures of Variety

It seems likely that the variety of syntactical elements that a child uses may constitute a good indicator of his command of the language of instruction and his readiness to cope with a variety of such patterns in reading. Some children use fairly complex nominal or adverbial structures which they have borrowed from television programs or from the teacher's characteristic expressions. However, if a child uses a variety of adverbials in different positions in the sentence, or if he uses many different types of nominals, such flexibility indicates that he has progressed beyond imitation to a more flexible use of the language of instruction.

With the exception of the type-token ratio, all other variety measures have been developed especially for use in this study. Although flexibility in expressing one's self has long been recognized as significant in an evaluation of linguistic maturity, research workers have failed to tabulate how many different patterns an individual child uses.

The first measure of variety used was based on a grid developed for each child, in which verb types were classified within predication patterns. Since entries for interrogative and imperative sentences were recorded in the grid in different colors, we obtained a count of all combinations of verb type within predication patterns within sentence type (i.e. declarative, imperative, and interrogative). Passive constructions, although rare, were also recorded and counted separately. Since this variety factor, the first one developed, increased from a mean of 7.22 at the first-grade level to 10.47 at the third-grade level, the staff decided to devise other measures of variety and flexibility in the use of language.

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[9] Ibid., p. 15.

[10] Loban, Grammatical Structures, p. 11.

The next variety measure also involved the use of a grid for each child; in this case, the different types of adverbials were combined with different possible positions in the sentence. Adverbials, for the most part, can appear in various places in the sentence without a change of meaning. Adverbials were classified into four types: (1) intensifiers, (2) adverbs, (3) adverbial phrases, and (4) adverb clauses. Then a letter code was used to designate each of four positions in which adverbials other than intensifiers can occur: (a) modifier before the subject, (b) modifier between subject and verb, (c) modifier in between parts of the verb, and (d) modifier after the verb. When this second variety measure was tested, we found that third-grade children used 5.10 such adverbial x position combinations - almost 50 per cent more than did first-graders, whose mean was only 3.80.

Three different variety scores were used in the analysis of nominals. The first is simply the number of different nominal types used, from among the 25 different types listed in Appendix A. Since the most frequent type of nominal involving modifiers is the simple adjective + noun construction, it seemed desirable to develop a variety measure which would give greater credit to the child who used several different adjective modifiers, as compared with the child who used "little" or "pretty" several times. Hence, we computed "number of different adjectives used" as another measure of variety. Our third measure of variety in the use of nominals was simply "number of infrequently used nominals," i.e. the number of nominals a child uses which are not classifiable under the five types listed in the earlier section on nominals as most frequently used by Malabar children.

In connection with the study of verbs and predication patterns, as well as the study of nominals, notations had been made concerning compound constructions; hence we made a variety count on types of compounds (e.g. compound verbs and adjectives, nouns used as compound subjects, objects of verbs, objects of prepositions, etc.). As noted earlier, the verbals used had been identified; hence, it was possible to note variety in the use of verbals (infinitive and participles used in different functions within the T-unit).

When the study of adverbials was being made, the analyst tallied the number of times certain commonly used prepositions, adverbs, and intensifiers were used.[11] Whenever uncommon prepositions, adverbs, or intensifiers were found in the typescript, these were written in the proper section on the reverse side of the summary sheet. Three additional measures were obtained for each child from these data: Number of different uncommon prepositions used, number of different uncommon adverbs used, and number of different uncommon intensifiers used.

The remaining measures of variety were all by-products of the work done for the type-token analysis. The directions for the type-token ratio, as well as the duplicated list of frequently used words used in tallying, are given in Appendix A. As in other studies, the number of tokens (words) and the number of types (different words) were recorded for each child; type-token ratios were done by computer.

One of the difficulties with the type-token ratio is that it tends to be affected by sample size. In other words, the larger the sample, the greater the tendency for the speaker to re-use words already introduced, especially function words; and the less the tendency to introduce new words in the same proportion.[12] This problem was taken care of, to some degree, by the decision to restrict our second-level analysis to samples of 300 words from the longer typescripts. However, it did not eliminate the problem of differences in sample length for typescripts with less than 300 words. Reference to Table IV shows that mean number of sample words is so nearly identical for high- and low-reader groups at each grade level that these comparisons were minimally affected by the fact that type-token ratio is a function of sample size. Moreover, the same table shows a negligible difference in mean sample size between second- and third-graders. Hence, the only way in which this phenomenon complicates our comparisons is that it has undoubtedly inflated, in some degree, the mean type-token ratio for first-graders where the mean sample size is 58 words below the mean for second-graders and 68 words below the mean for third-graders. The reader will note in Table IX that the mean type-token ratio for first-graders is higher than that for either grades 2 or 3. At the first-grade level,

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[11] Commonly used prepositions printed on the summary sheet were: at, in, on, to, and with. Commonly used adverbs were: here, not, now, off, out, and there. Commonly used intensifiers were: real (really), right, no, and very.

[12] J. W. Chotlos, "Studies in Language Behavior: IV. A Statistical and Comparative Analysis of Written Language Samples," Psychological Monographs, LVI, (1944), pp. 75-111.

36 per cent of the oral language samples had less than one hundred words for second-level analysis. In these small samples, the type-token ratio tends to be spuriously high.

As a by-product of the work done on the type-token ratios, two additional measures were obtained: (1) number of different expressions indicating tentativeness[13] used by the child and (2) number of words added to the typed analysis sheet (which had been compiled from our initial study of words frequently used by these children in their Oral Language Interviews).

Measures of Variation from Standard English

The study of children's variations from standard English excluded phonic and morphemic variations. Syntactical variations only were studied; these were grouped into Loban's eighteen categories[14] of deviations from standard English, with one new category added: omission of pronouns (which occurs much more frequently among these bilingual children than among other children their age).

Study of Different Sections of the Oral Language Interview

In order to determine the extent to which the characteristics of children's oral language vary with the subject discussed, a sub-study was made of the three sections of the Oral Language Interview for 28 children in the high-reader group for grade A2.

Since the questions of the Oral Language Interview were always asked in the same sequence, it is impossible to separate the effect of subject matter from the effect of order of topics in the interview. One would expect that the first topic would elicit the greatest volume of language from the child, irrespective of content. Boys' conversation about the first topic (favorite television program) averaged 218 words, as compared with 162 words on the second topic (toys) and 136 words on the last topic (Loban's pictures). The averages for girls were quite different; although Loban's pictures were used last, they elicited slightly more words (mean of 113) than did the first topic--favorite television program (with a mean of 103 words); girls talked least about the toys (only 62 words on the average). It was interesting to note the boys conversed about toys much more than did girls. In our initial try-out of materials for the Oral Language Interview, boys' toys had been under-represented in the "toy shop"; our attempt to correct for this was obviously successful (Table I).

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[13] The following expressions (typed in capital letters on the type-token list in Appendix A) were considered to be expressions of tentativeness: could, couldn't, guess, if, kinda, may, maybe, might, perhaps, possible, possibly, somewhat, sorta, wonder, would, wouldn't.

[14] Loban, Problems in Oral English, p. 7. The list of variations is given in Appendix A.

For boys and girls combined, the TV section elicited 152 words on the average; Loban's pictures (third in the sequence) came next with 123 words; and the Toy section was last with 105 words.

Not only did the Toy section elicit the smallest number of words but the smallest percentage of words in T-units. Almost one-third of the words in this section of the interview were reportage responsums, i.e. meaningful incomplete predications. It was evident that the decision to expand the Oral Language Interview beyond a discussion of a "toy shop" had been a wise decision since the questions on toys did not stimulate children to converse at their most mature level.

The discussion of favorite television programs was characterized by longer mean T-unit length but a relatively high percentage of maze material, especially among boys. It may be that its initial position in the interview accounted, in part, for a larger percentage of hesitations, repetitions, and false starts. It is also probable that many children become excited in their discussion of television programs and hence include more maze material.

On the whole, the Oral Language Interview seems well-designed, beginning with a section which elicits considerable discussion from both boys and girls, with a relatively high mean T-unit length, and concluding with the discussion of Loban's pictures which elicit considerable discussion from both boys and girls, with a relatively small percentage of maze material. The intermediate section on Toys, which did not elicit much conversation from girls, was second in interest for boys; and the mean T-unit length was approximately the same as that for the third section on Loban's pictures.

Neither boys nor girls consistently excel in the language measures which have been shown by other studies to be good indices of linguistic maturity. Boys are slightly superior in mean T-unit length; girls are superior in per cent of words in T-units on the first section of the interview, but boys are slightly superior on the second and third sections.

Girls seem to talk less; they consistently have a smaller per cent of maze material and a larger per cent of reportage responsums. Less of their speech appears to be self-initiated and more in direct response to questions.

TABLE I

COMPARISON OF THREE SECTIONS OF ORAL LANGUAGE INTERVIEW WITH RESPECT TO PERCENTAGES OF WORDS IN MAZES, REPORTAGE RESPONSUMS, AND T-UNITS - HIGH READING GROUPS FOR GRADE A2

Interview section on	Boys 12	Girls 16	Combined 28
Favorite television program			
Per cent of words In:			
Mazes	25.3	15.1	19.5
Reportage responsums	12.4	17.2	15.3
T-units	63.2	67.7	65.8
Mean length of T-unit	6.8	6.6	6.7
Mean number of words spoken	218	103	152
Toys			
Per cent of words in:			
Mazes	17.3	11.6	12.9
Reportage responsums	26.2	35.6	31.6
T-units	61.1	59.6	60.2
Mean length of T-unit	6.4	6.2	6.3
Mean number of words spoken	162	62	105
Loban's pictures			
Per cent of words in:			
Mazes	13.1	9.9	11.2
Reportage responsums	18.7	23.4	21.4
T-units	68.2	66.3	67.1
Mean length of T-unit	6.4	6.1	6.2
Mean number of words spoken	136	113	123

Reliability of Language Measures

Inter-rater reliability of language measures used in first-level analysis. Since considerable in-service education was needed in the analysis of this type of oral language material, and yet we did want to check the reliability of independently formed judgments on the classification of language in these various categories, we worked out an arrangement in which analysts worked in Team A or Team B, helping each other with interpretations within teams as needed. Each team (which included three or four bilingual members of the project staff) was trained independently and worked independently. In Table II are given the inter-rater reliability coefficients between the independent evaluations by Teams A and B of duplicated typescripts for 26 A2 pupils (who comprised the lowest third of the A2 class with respect to reading achievement on the Stanford Reading Test). The use of a group of low readers for this reliability check insures that the reliability estimates are conservative.

In Table IV-3 of the first Interim Report[15], the reliability coefficients are given for four of the measures used in the first-level analysis. These coefficients were re-done since corrections had been made in the original segmentation whenever work on the second-level analysis revealed that errors had initially been made. Moreover, raw data only had been punched in data cards; and percentages for individuals had been re-calculated by computer.

For two of the four derived measures used in first-level analysis, the new reliability coefficients were higher; i.e. per cent of words in mazes had been judged much more reliably (.93 as compared with .82); while the reliability for per cent of words in T-units was slightly higher (.80 as compared with .77). For the two other measures (per cent of words in reportage responsums and mean length of T-unit) the reliability coefficients computed this year are lower but still entirely adequate for comparisons of groups.

Two new measures were added to first-level analysis this year, i.e. mean length of the three longest T-units (with an inter-rater reliability of .95); and mean length of the three longest T-units without variations. Since use of the latter measure involved some subjectivity, inter-rater reliability is somewhat lower (.85).

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[15] A Reading Program for Mexican-American Children: First Interim Report (Constance E. Amsden, Principal Investigator), Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Bureau of Research, 1966. p. 46.

TABLE II

INTER-RATER RELIABILITY[a] FOR MEASURES OF ORAL LANGUAGE

Measures of oral language	Team A		Team B		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	rho
Per cent of words classified as:					
Mazes	16.6	7.2	17.5	8.4	.93
Reportage responsums	19.3	12.5	17.1	10.8	.69
T-units	62.5	12.7	64.2	12.4	.80
Mean length of:					
All T-units	5.9	1.1	6.1	1.2	.82
Three longest T-units[b]	10.85	3.1	10.62	2.8	.95
Three longest T-units without variations[b]	8.6	3.2	8.5	2.9	.85
Measures used in analysis of predications and verbs					
Per cent of predications of:					
Type I	44.3	13.4	47.0	12.3	.88
Type II	5.3	5.6	3.5	3.9	.65
Type III	3.6	4.7	4.3	4.6	.86
Type IV	42.4	12.2	40.7	9.5	.83
Type V	.6	1.3	1.5	3.2	.37
Type VI	3.8	5.1	3.2	4.4	.93
Per cent of verbs classified as:					
Present tense	55.0	19.9	57.3	17.0	.90
Present progressive	9.5	7.4	9.7	6.1	.85
Past tense	13.8	13.3	9.6	8.5	.90
Past progressive	2.7	5.7	2.4	5.3	.99
Modal auxiliary[c] + base form of verb	12.5	11.8	16.1	12.9	.81
Modal auxiliary[c] + infinitive	3.1	4.9	3.8	6.7	.87
Variations of present and past progressive[d]	1.5	3.0	1.1	2.1	.79
Miscellaneous	2.0	4.9	.5	1.4	.91
Measures used in the analysis of adverbials					
Number of verbs	28.9	11.9	29.2	11.6	.99
Types of adverbials					
Number of intensifiers	.06	.04	.06	.04	e
Number of adverbs	13.5	8.0	12.4	7.5	.95
Number of adverb phrases	5.8	3.1	5.9	3.3	.92
Number of adverb clauses	2.8	2.5	3.0	2.8	.85
Total number of adverbials	22.0	12.0	21.3	11.7	.95

TABLE II--Continued

Measures of oral language	Team A		Team B		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	rho
Ratios:					
Ratio of intensifiers/verbs	.02	.03	.02	.04	e
Ratio of adverbs/verbs	.45	.18	.41	.20	.84
Ratio of adv.phrases/verbs	.15	.87	.15	.87	.75
Ratio of adverbials/verbs modified	.58	.57	.60	.56	.83
Measures used in the analysis of nominals					
Number of nominals of:					
Type Ia (single-word nominals, nouns + determiners, proper names)	41.3	17.9	41.0	17.2	.91
Type Ib (unmodified noun adjuncts	.9	.6	.5	.4	e
Type IIa (one adjective modifier + Ia or Ib)	4.3	2.6	4.4	2.8	.67
Type IIc (single prepositional phrase modifier)	1.1	1.2	.8	1.1	.82
Type IIIb (nouns, noun adjuncts or pronouns inflected as possessives)	1.7	1.6	2.2	2.4	.74
All other types of nominals	1.4	1.8	1.3	2.2	e
Per cent of unmodified nominals	86.3	7.4	86.4	6.0	.76
Measures of subordination					
Number of:					
Adverb clauses	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.0	.94
Adjective clauses	1.0	1.4	.7	1.1	e
Noun clauses	1.3	1.5	1.4	1.7	e
Verbals	1.8	2.2	1.7	2.3	.24
Ratios:					
No. of clauses per T-unit	1.2	1.4	1.1	1.4	.97
Mean length of clause	5.9	1.1	6.1	1.2	.82
Measures of variety					
No. of predication x verb types used	10.1	3.1	9.6	2.8	.89
No. of adverbial type x position combinations used	4.8	1.7	4.8	1.5	.84
No. of nominal types used	3.5	2.0	3.1	1.7	.79
No. of different adjectives used	5.3	3.5	5.0	3.0	.91

TABLE II --Continued

Measures of oral language	Team A		Team B		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	rho
No. of infrequently used nominals	1.4	1.8	1.3	2.2	.77
No. of types of compounds used	.4	.6	.4	.8	.28
No. of types of verbals used	1.3	.13	1.3	1.5	.13
No. of different uncommon prepositions used[f]	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.4	.84
adverbs used[g]	5.5	3.5	4.7	2.8	.86
intensifiers used[h]	.3	.4	.5	.9	e
No. of expressions indicating tentativeness[i]	.6	.8	.6	.8	.97
Type-token ratio	.5	.1	.5	.1	.96
No. of words added to type-token list	37.0	14.2	35.6	14.8	.95
Variations in oral language					
Total no. of verb variations	9.6	6.9	9.5	5.0	.61
Total no. of variations	4.8	4.1	4.9	3.5	.83

[a] Product-moment correlations between A and B teams (N=28 A2 Low-readers). Analysts worked in Team A or Team B, helping each other with marginal decisions within teams as needed.

[b] In 300-word samples used for second-level analysis.

[c] Other than "shall" or "will".

[d] Such as "get" or "keep" + present participle; or similar verbs + past participle.

[e] Reliability coefficient was not computed because 40 per cent or more of the pupils had zero scores.

[f] Other than: at, in, of, on, to, with.

[g] Other than: here, not, now, off, out, there.

[h] Other than: real (really), right, so, very.

[i] The following expressions were considered to be expressions of tentativeness: could (cud), couldn't, guess, if, kinda, may, maybe, might, perhaps, possible, possibly, somewhat, sorta, wonder, would, wouldn't.

Inter-rater reliability of oral language measures used in second-level analysis. In the analysis of types of predications, the analysts were consistent in their classification of T-units and clauses into four of the six classifications. The only types with cooefficients below .80 were Type II (Subject + Linking Verb + Predicate Adjective) and Type V which involved the indirect object. Only 5-6 per cent of all T-units fell into these classifications; hence we can assume that a large percentage of the T-units analyzed were accurately classified.

With respect to the classification of verbs, inter-rater reliabilities were consistently high. Inter-rater reliabilities are also consistently high for each of the different classifications of adverbials. Although three of the five reliability coefficients for the study of nominals were below .80, all were satisfactory for the comparison of groups.

With the exception of verbals, inter-rater reliabilities for measures of subordination were all above .80. Since all measures of variety except the type-token ratio were especially designed for this study, we were especially interested in the inter-rater reliability for variety measures. It is apparent that more specific directions for two measures of variety (those for verbals and compounds) need to be developed for the end-of-project replication of the language study; these two coefficients were unsatisfactory. Reliability coefficients for all other variety measures were .77 and above, with the following measures having reliability coefficients above .90: number of different adjectives used, number of expressions of tentativeness, type-token ratio, and number of words added to type-token list.

The reliability coefficients for total number of variations from standard English was quite adequate (.83); however, the coefficient for "total number of verb variations" was rather low (.61).

Reliability of oral language measures across interview situations. In order to check on the stability of children's language performance on two different occasions, as elicited by two different interviewers, the Oral Language Interview was administered by both Mr. Gomez and Mr. Selva to 28 children (grades B1 to A3). In order to eliminate any differential effects of interviewer-order, Mr. Gomez interviewed 14 children, and Mr. Selva interviewed 14 children. Each of them then interviewed the other's group of 14 children, making a total of 28 interviews for each interviewer, or 56 interviews in all. In selecting these children for the reliability study, numbers were drawn from envelopes at random; and the child's name was taken from the class roster by corresponding number.

These coefficients of reliability (presented in Table III) include all sources of unreliability: language samples obtained on two occasions by two different interviewers, and analyzed by two different language analysts. Hence, one would expect the reliability coefficients to be considerably lower than in Table II.

Since T-unit length is considered to be a good measure of language maturity, it is disconcerting to see the low reliability of this measure from one language-eliciting situation to another. Evidently, for these children the mean length of the three longest T-units is a more reliable index of language maturity across situations.

Low reliabilities were obtained across situations for all types of predications. Higher reliabilities, quite adequate for group comparisons, were obtained for each type of verbs.

The reliability coefficients for number of T-units and number of verbs were quite satisfactory (.84 and .64 respectively). However, the reliability for per cent of verbs modified and for two types of adverbials (adverbs and adverb phrases) was very low across interview situations. The only measures of adverbials which had adequate consistency from one interview to another were number of adverb clauses and total number of adverbials. Of the ratios computed in the study of adverbials, only two had satisfactory reliability (ratio of adverbs/verbs and ratio of adverbials/verbs modified). Since ratios of this type are probably a function of sample size, the most consistent results are obtained for those modifiers which occur with considerable frequency, i.e. those involving adverbs and total adverbials.

Of the measures used in the analysis of nominals, only nominals of Type Ia had satisfactory reliability across interview situations. It was disappointing to find low reliability for "per cent of unmodified nominals" since Hunt had found that this measure changed significantly with grade level.

All measures of subordination for which reliability coefficients could be computed, had moderately high reliabilities across situations, i.e. adequate for group comparisons.

Of the measures of variety, only five had reliability coefficients across interview situations which would be considered adequate for group comparisons: number of predication x verb types used, .59; number of adverbial type x position combinations used, .49; and number of different uncommon prepositions, adverbs, and intensifiers used, .58, .56, and .69 respectively. Both of the measures of variations had moderate consistency over interview situations.

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[16] Hunt, Grammatical Structures, p. 100.

TABLE III

RELIABILITY OF MEASURES OF ORAL LANGUAGE FOR TWO INTERVIEWS[a]

Measures of oral language	First Interview		Second Interview		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	rho
Measures of basic structure used in first-level analysis					
No.of words in total interview classified as:					
Mazes	75.9	10.6	85.3	15.3	.84
Reportage responsums	60.5	4.7	59.9	8.1	.48
T-units	321.7	46.5	338.7	60.2	.84
Total no.of words	458.1	61.8	483.9	83.5	.85
Per cent of words classified as:					
Mazes	14.1	6.7	14.4	7.8	.60
Reportage responsums	18.1	13.2	15.9	12.8	.52
T-units	67.8	11.9	69.7	12.3	.59
Number of T-units	48.0	5.4	49.6	8.4	.84
Mean length of:					
All T-units	6.5	1.1	6.5	1.0	.41
Three longest T-units[b]	11.9	3.4	12.2	4.0	.69
Three longest T-units without variations[b]	10.1	2.8	10.3	2.8	.49
Measures used in analysis of of predications and verbs					
Per cent of predications of:					
Type I	38.7	17.5	39.9	13.1	.15
Type II	4.9	4.6	5.4	5.0	.24
Type III	4.9	4.9	3.8	3.8	.35
Type IV	46.3	14.0	46.5	10.6	.25
Type V	2.0	1.7	1.3	2.2	.37
Type VI	3.6	3.8	3.2	3.6	.28
Per cent of verbs classified as:					
Present tense	59.0	17.6	54.2	14.7	.66
Present progressive	8.8	8.6	10.0	10.2	.56
Past tense	10.6	10.4	10.7	11.6	.50
Past progressive	2.2	4.3	1.8	3.0	.80

TABLE III--Continued

Measures of oral language	First Interview		Second Interview		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	rho
Modal auxiliary[c] + base form of verb	14.3	11.4	17.2	15.7	.42
Modal auxiliary[c] + infinitive	2.6	3.3	3.6	5.2	.47
Variations of present and past progressive[d]	1.1	2.5	1.4	1.2	.44
Miscellaneous	1.3	3.1	1.7	3.0	.56
Measures used in the analysis of adverbials					
Number of verbs	25.7	12.1	23.8	12.9	.64
Per cent of verbs modified	55.5	14.8	52.9	11.5	.16
Types of adverbials:					
Number of intensifiers	1.4	.2	1.1	1.4	e
Number of adverbs	13.9	7.8	11.6	6.6	.16
Number of adv.phrases	6.1	4.0	5.9	4.2	.16
Number of adv.clauses	3.1	2.8	2.8	2.5	.59
Total number of adverbials	24.5	11.8	21.0	17.2	.58
Ratios:					
Ratio of intensifiers/verbs	.06	.04	.06	.04	e
Ratio of adverbs/verbs	.55	.13	.33	.52	.52
Ratio of adv.phrases/verbs	.48	.17	.44	.18	.04
Ratio of adv.clauses/verbs	.14	.11	.13	.08	.26
Ratio of adverbials/verbs modified	1.37	1.90	1.07	1.41	.53
Measures used in the analysis of nominals					
Number of nominals of:					
Type Ia (single-word nominals, nouns + determiners, proper names)	48.6	17.5	44.7	19.5	.67
Type Ib (unmodified noun adjuncts)	.6	.9	.4	.7	e
Type IIa (one adjective modifier + Ia or Ib)	4.2	2.7	4.4	2.9	.30
Type IIc (simple prepositional phrase modifier)	1.0	1.3	.7	1.0	.18
Type IIIb (nouns, noun adjuncts or pronouns inflected as possessives	1.6	1.7	2.4	2.0	.47
All other types of nominals	1.7	2.5	1.8	1.8	e
Per cent of unmodified nominals	84.9	6.9	82.1	6.2	.27

TABLE III--Continued

Measures of oral language	First Interview		Second Interview		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	rho
Measures of subordination					
Number of:					
Adverb clauses	3.1	2.8	2.8	2.5	.59
Adjective clauses	.9	1.5	.6	1.1	e
Noun clauses	1.2	1.5	1.4	1.8	e
Main + subordinate clauses	54.5	11.6	63.4	12.7	.65
Verbals	2.3	2.4	1.5	1.7	.52
Ratios:					
No. of clauses per T-unit	1.2	1.5	1.2	1.4	.40
Mean length of clause	5.5	.9	5.4	.6	.49
Measures of variety					
No. of predication x verb types used	7.3	6.3	8.4	6.7	.59
No. of adverbial type x position combinations used	5.3	1.4	4.9	1.4	.49
No. of nominal types used	3.7	2.0	3.4	1.4	.28
No. of different adjectives used	6.1	3.8	6.7	3.6	.33
No. of infrequently used nominals	1.7	2.5	1.8	1.8	e
No. of types of compounds used	.3	.6	.4	.6	e
No. of types of verbals used	1.1	.6	.7	.1	.32
No. of different uncommon prepositions used[f]	1.5	.3	1.9	.4	.58
adverbs used[g]	5.8	.5	5.0	.6	.56
intensifiers used[h]	.4	.1	.3	.1	.69
No. of expressions indicating tentativeness[i]	1.8	.3	.4	1.0	.12
Type-token ratio	.5	.1	.5	.1	.11
No. of words added to type-token list	37.3	5.1	36.6	5.9	.38

TABLE III--Continued

Measures of oral language	First Interview Mean	First Interview SD	Second Interview Mean	Second Interview SD	rho
Variations in oral language					
Total no.of verb variations	3.7	3.4	4.4	4.0	.50
Total no.of variations	7.2	4.9	7.1	5.2	.43

[a] For the reliability study, 28 pupils were selected at random from the pupils in grades A1, A2, and A3. The average time between interviews was two weeks. The first and second interview for each pupil was conducted by a different interviewer, with four different members of the staff conducting the interviews. The transcript of each interview was analyzed by one of a staff of six analysts.

[b] In 300-word samples used for second-level analysis.

[c] Other than "shall" or "will".

[d] Such as "get" or "keep" + present participle; or similar verbs + past participle.

[e] Reliability coefficient was not computed because 40 per cent or more of the pupils had zero scores.

[f] Other than: at, in, of, on, to, with.

[g] Other than: here, not, now, off, out, there.

[h] Other than: real (really), right, so, very.

[i] The following expressions were considered to be expressions of tentativeness: could (cud), couldn't, guess, if, kinda, may, maybe, might, perhaps, possible, possibly, somewhat, sorta, wonder, would, wouldn't.

CHAPTER IX

ANALYSIS OF THE COMPLEXITY AND VARIETY OF LANGUAGE SAMPLES FOR MALABAR PRIMARY-GRADE CHILDREN

In this chapter are summarized the findings from applying 76 measures of oral language to language samples taken from the typescripts for Oral Language Interviews with 171 Mexican-American children in grades 1-3. For each measure comparisons are made between mean scores for high- and low-readers at the three grade levels (A1, A2, and A3). In addition, subgroups within grade have been combined so that grade-level trends can be studied. Standard deviations for all measures are given in corresponding tables in the Appendix.

Replication of First-Level Analysis

As explained in Chapter VIII, the first-level analysis presented in the First Interim Report has been redone with slightly increased accuracy resulting from (1) the computation of individual derived scores (percentages and ratios) by computer, and (2) occasional modifications of first-level analysis when re-examination of the same T-units for second-level analysis revealed any inaccuracies.

In Table IV, all measures except the last two were obtained by analysis of the entire typescript; the last two measures (as all the others in succeeding tables) were based on samples of 300 words or less. The sampling procedures are explained in Appendix A.

Grade-level trends. At all three grade-levels, 15-16 per cent of the words are classified as maze material. In Loban's study, the percentage of maze material decreased from 10 per cent in grade one to 6 per cent in grade three.[1]

There is a consistent decrease with grade level in the percentage of words classified as reportage responsums, decreasing from 28.8 per cent in the first grade to 18.5 per cent in the third grade. Although the difference between grades 2 and 3 is not significant, those between grades 1 and 2, and between grades 1 and 3 are significant at the .05 level. The per cent of words in T-units increased significantly from 56.1 per cent at the first-grade to 66.7 per cent at the third-grade level. The difference between the means for first- and second-graders was also significant.

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[1] Loban, Language Ability, p. 25.

TABLE IV

FIRST-LEVEL ANALYSIS OF ORAL LANGUAGE INTERVIEW INTO T-UNITS, MAZES AND REPORTAGE RESPONSUMS: COMPARISON OF GRADE LEVEL MEANS AND COMPARISON OF MEANS FOR HIGH READERS[a] AND LOW READERS[b] IN GRADES A1, A2, A3

Variable	Comparison of Means by Grade			Comparison of Means for High and Low readers					
				A1		A2		A3	
	A1	A2	A3	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Number of cases	59	52	60	27	32	28	24	32	28
Number of words in Oral Language Interview classified as:									
Mazes	102.3	66.7	75.6	85.4	116.5	60.6	73.8	48.3	106.7*
Reportage responsums	50.9	54.9	55.9	54.7	47.6	56.8	52.7	49.7	62.9
T-units	323.8	253.9	314.0	357.3	295.5	233.9	277.2	234.8	404.4
Total number of words	477.0	375.5	445.5	497.4	459.6	351.3	403.7	332.8	574.0*
Per cent of words in Oral Language Interview classified as:									
Mazes	15.2	16.2	15.0	13.8	16.3	15.3	17.2	13.4	16.7
Reportage responsums	28.8	20.4*	18.5^{c}	33.3	25.0	20.9	19.8	18.9	18.1
T-units	56.1	63.4*	66.7^{c}	52.9	58.7	63.7	63.2	67.8	65.3
Number of T-units	43.2	39.4	44.9	45.8	40.9	36.3	43.0	34.3	57.0
Mean length of									
All T-units	5.7	6.1	6.7^{*c}	5.6	5.9	6.2	5.9	6.8	6.6
Three longest T-units[d]	9.7	11.4*	12.8^{*c}	9.7	9.7	11.9	10.9	12.9	12.6
Three longest T-units without variations[d]	7.7	9.2*	10.9^{*c}	7.6	7.8	9.8	8.6	10.9	10.9
Sample studied	184.7	242.5	253.0	182.2	186.6	249.4	234.5	254.7	250.9

[*] Mean significantly higher than that for next lowest grade level; or in comparisons within grade level (in right-hand portion of table), mean is significantly higher than for other reading group at the same grade level ($p < .05$).

[a] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the highest third of their grade.

[b] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the lowest third of their grade.

[c] Mean significantly higher for A3 than for A1 grade ($p < .05$).

[d] In "300-word sample" used for second level analysis. Some interviews involved less than 300 words. The mean number of words in each sample is given in the last line of the table.

Mean length of T-unit has been found by Hunt[2] and by O'Donnell, Griffin, and Norris[3] to be a good index of linguistic maturity. For Malabar children, the mean length increased significantly from 5.7 words in the first grade to 6.7 words in the third grade. The change from the second- to the third-grade level was also significant at the .05 level.

While the mean length of T-unit reflects the child's typical level of performance, the mean length of the child's three longest T-units more nearly reflects his maximum level of performance. For this measure, the third-grade mean of 12.8 words was significantly higher than the second-grade mean of 11.4 words, which was significantly higher than that for the first grade (9.7 words).

Since long T-units may reflect confusion in the child's speech, a new measure was introduced, i.e. mean length of the three longest T-units which contained no variations from standard English. Here again, although the means for each grade-level were approximately two words shorter, all grade-level differences were statistically significant.

Comparisons of high- and low-reader groups. As a criterion of reading achievement, the pupil's corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I was used. Those Mexican-American pupils scoring in the highest third of their grade were compared with those scoring in the lowest third on all language measures. Since this test was very difficult for A1 pupils,[4] it is not surprising to see that no significant differences were found in Table IV for the first-grade level.

Although the differences at the second-grade and third-grade level were not statistically significant, the high-reader groups had consistently more favorable results on the following measures of language maturity: lower percentage of maze material, longer mean length of T-unit, and longer mean length of three longest T-units.

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[2] Hunt, Grammatical Structures, p. 141.

[3] Roy C. O'Donnell, William J. Griffin, and Raymond C. Norris, Syntax of Kindergarten and Elementary School Children: A transformational Analysis. Research Report No. * (Champaign: National Council of Teachers of English, 1965), p. 44.

[4] The median corrected raw score of A1 pupils was only 1.3 (First Interim Report, p. 52).

Types of Predication Patterns and Verbs

At each of the three grade-levels, approximately five-sixths of all T-units were of the two most common types, i.e. Type I (Subject + Intransitive Verb) and Type IV (Subject + Transitive Verb + Object). Loban's low group (classified by teachers as low in linguistic development[5]) had 84 per cent of their complete communication units in these two categories at the first-grade level, and 79 per cent at the third-grade level.

At each grade-level, 80 per cent or more of the verbs used by children were classifiable into the three most frequently used types: present tense, present progressive tense, and modal auxiliary + base form of verb (such as "can go").

Grade-level trends. No consistent, significant grade-level trends are evident in Table V. The only significant difference is that second-graders used a significantly larger percentage of T-units of Type VI (Subject Holder + Verb + Subject) than did first-graders.

Although the differences are not statistically significant, first-graders use more T-units of Type IV (Subject + Transitive Verb + Direct Object) than do older students; and they use fewer sentences of Types II and III (involving the predicate adjective and predicate nominative respectively) than do older children.

Comparisons of high- and low-reader groups. The only statistically significant difference favoring the high-reader group occurs at the first-grade level, in that the better readers (contrary to expectation) use a higher percentage of present-tense verbs.

Although the differences are not statistically significant, high-readers at all grade-levels show somewhat greater use of patterns II and III, involving the use of the predicate adjective and predicate nominative.

Types of Adverbials

Although second- and third-grade children used significantly more verbs and modified these verbs more frequently than did first-graders (Table VI), these differences are due mainly to grade-level differences in number of T-unit words available for second-level

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[5] The lowest 24-30 subjects from groups of approximately 250 children, selected on the basis of average teachers' ratings on language ability (cumulated over at least four years). Loban, The Language of Elementary School Children, p. 2.

TABLE V

TYPES OF PREDICATION PATTERNS AND VERBS: COMPARISON OF GRADE LEVEL MEANS AND COMPARISON OF MEANS FOR HIGH READERS[a] AND LOW READERS[b] IN GRADES A1, A2, A3

Variable	Comparison of Means by Grade			Comparison of Means for High and Low readers					
				A1		A2		A3	
	A1	A2	A3	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Number of cases	59	52	60	27	32	28	24	32	28
Percentage of predications of each type:									
Type I	36.6	40.4	36.3	36.4	36.8	37.1	44.3	35.8	37.0
Type II	5.2	6.9	6.4	5.5	4.9	8.3	5.3	7.2	5.6
Type III	3.5	4.8	4.7	3.8	3.3	5.9	3.6	5.3	3.9
Type IV	51.3	42.4	46.9	51.0	51.5	42.3	42.4	45.5	48.5
Type V	.5	.6	1.0	.1	.8*	.5	.6	.9	1.0
Type VI	2.9	4.9*	4.7	3.0	2.8	5.9	3.8	5.3	4.0
Percentage of verbs of each type:									
Present tense	61.2	55.5	61.7	65.2*	58.3	55.9	55.0	62.9	60.4
Present progressive	9.9	10.0	9.8	9.5	10.1	10.5	9.5	10.7	8.8
Past tense	10.8	13.4	10.7	9.7	11.6	13.0	13.8	10.6	10.7
Past progressive	1.4	2.7	2.6	.5	2.1	2.8	2.7	3.2	1.9
Modal auxiliary + base form of verb[d]	12.7	13.9	11.0	10.9	14.0	15.0	12.5	8.1	14.2*
Modal auxiliary + infinitive[d]	2.1	2.6	2.3	2.5	1.9	2.1	3.1	2.4	2.2
Variations of present and past progressive[e]	1.0	1.0	1.3	.6	1.3	.6	1.5	1.7	.9
Miscellaneous	.8	1.2	.8	.8	.8	.4	2.0	.4	1.3

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*Mean significantly higher than that for next lowest grade level; or in comparisons within grade level (in right-hand portion of table), mean is significantly higher than for other reading group at the same grade level ($p < .05$).

[a] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the highest third of their grade.

[b] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the lowest third of their grade.

[c] Mean significantly higher for A3 than for A1 grade ($p < .05$).

[d] Other than "shall" or "will".

[e] Such as "get" or "keep" + present participle; or similar verbs + past participle.

analysis. As shown in Table VIII, the mean number of T-unit words increased from 114 words at the first-grade level to 157 words at second-grade and 175 at the third-grade level. Hence, the data in Table VI must be interpreted in light of these differences in sample size.

Grade-level trends. Since the numbers of different types of adverbials vary with sample size, ratios have been computed between each type of adverbial and the number of verbs which are available as heads for modification structures.

Both second- and third-grade pupils are significantly superior to first-graders with respect to (1) ratio of total averbials to verbs and (2) ratio of adverbials/verbs modified. The latter ratio reflects the complexity of the modification structure. Third-graders were significantly superior to younger children with respect to ratio of intensifiers to verbs and ratio of adverb phrases to verbs.

Comparison of high- and low-reader groups. At the third-grade level, the high-reader group is significantly superior to the low-reader group with respect to the ratio of adverbials to verbs modified. The high-readers at the third-grade level are also superior to low-readers with respect to the ratio of adverb phrases to verbs; the t-ratio for this comparison was 1.8.

Types of Nominals

With the exception of the last measure in Table VII, all others are affected by grade-level differences in sample size, mentioned earlier. Comparisons of reading groups within grade-level are not affected, however, since sample sizes are comparable (Table VII).

Grade-level trends. The significant increases with grade level in total number of nominals are proportional to differences with respect to number of T-unit words available for analysis. The number of IIa and IIc nominals increased from grade 1 to grade 3 by somewhat higher percentages than can be explained by the 53 per cent increase in sample size. The mean number of infrequently used nominals (all other types) was more than twice as high for third-graders as for first-graders.

Comparison of high- and low-reader groups. At both the second- and third-grade levels, the high-reader group was superior with respect to the use of Type IIa and IIc modifiers (i.e. those involving the use of a single adjective or a simple prepositional phrase). At the second-grade level, these differences were statistically significant.

TABLE VII

TYPES OF NOMINALS USED: COMPARISON OF GRADE LEVEL MEANS AND COMPARISON OF MEANS FOR HIGH READERS[a] AND LOW READERS[b] IN GRADES A1, A2, A3

Variable	Comparison of Means by Grade			Comparison of Means for High and Low readers					
				A1		A2		A3	
	A1	A2	A3	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Number of cases	59	52	60	27	32	28	24	32	28
Number of nominals of:									
Type Ia (single-word nominals, nouns + determiners, proper names)	31.4	41.8*	44.8[c]	31.1	31.7	42.1	41.3	43.9	45.8
Type Ib (unmodified noun adjuncts)	.5	.4	.5	.6	.4	.4	.3	.6	.3
Type IIa (one adjective modifier + Ia or Ib)	2.8	3.8*	4.8[c]	2.5	3.0	4.6*	2.9	4.9	4.6
Type IIc (simple prepositional phrase modifier)	.5	.8*	1.2[c]	.4	.5	1.1*	.5	1.3	1.1
Type IIIb (nouns, noun adjuncts or pronouns inflected as possessives)	1.6	2.1	2.4[c]	1.2	2.0	2.4	1.9	2.5	2.4
All other types	1.3	1.7	3.0*[c]	1.4	1.2	1.9	1.4	3.5	2.4
Total number of nominals	38.1	50.6*	56.6[c]	37.3	38.8	52.6	48.3	56.7	56.5
Per cent of unmodified nominals (Ia + Ib)	80.9	83.2	79.3	76.3	84.9	80.6	86.3*	78.4	80.3

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*Mean significantly higher than that for next lowest grade level; or in comparisons within grade level (in right-hand portion of table), mean is significantly higher than for other reading group at the same grade level ($p < .05$).

[a] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the highest third of their grade.

[b] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the lowest third of their grade.

[c] Mean significantly higher for A3 than for A1 grade ($p < .05$).

With respect to number of infrequently used nominals (all other types), the high-reader group was consistently superior at all three grade-levels. Although these differences were not statistically significant at the .05 level, the t-ratios exceeded 1.0 at both the second- and third-grade levels.

At all three grade-levels, the high-reader group had a lower percentage of unmodified nominals; for grade A2, the difference was statistically significant at the .05 level.

Measures of Subordination

The Malabar primary-grade children used relatively few subordinate clauses. As in Loban's study[6] the number of adjective clauses was smallest and the number of adverb clauses was relatively large.

Grade-level trends. Table VIII reveals considerable improvement with grade level in the use of subordination. The mean number of subordinate clauses increased from 2.70 for first-grade to 4.65 in grade 3. At the third-grade level, the ratio of clauses to T-units is 1.20; in other words, 20 per cent of the T-units included a subordinate clause. At the first-grade level, only 7 per cent do; the difference is statistically significant. The mean number of noun clauses doubled between grades 1 and 3, while the number of adjective clauses more than tripled. The number of adverb clauses (the most frequent type) increased consistently but less dramatically with grade level, with third-graders using 35 per cent more than did first-graders.

Comparison of high- and low-reader groups. At all grade levels, the high-reader group used more subordinate clauses than the low-reader group. The high-readers were consistently superior to low-readers with respect to frequency of use of adverb and adjective clauses at all three grade-levels. The only statistically significant difference, however, was for the use of adjective clauses by third-graders, with the high-readers using more than three times as many as did the low-readers.

Comparisons with respect to number of verbals used, average length of clause, and number of clauses per T-unit did not differentiate significantly between high- and low-reader groups.

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[6] Loban, Language Ability, p. 51.

TABLE VIII

MEASURES OF SUBORDINATION: COMPARISON OF GRADE LEVEL MEANS AND COMPARISON OF MEANS FOR HIGH READERS[a] AND LOW READERS[b] IN GRADES A1, A2, A3

Variable	Comparison of Means by Grade			Comparison of Means for High and Low readers					
				A1		A2		A3	
	A1	A2	A3	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Number of cases	59	52	60	27	32	28	24	32	28
Number of:									
Adverb clauses	1.72	2.00	2.33	2.25	1.25	2.11	1.88	2.41	2.25
Adjective clauses	.23	.23	.82*[c]	.29	.19	.32	.13	1.22*	.36
Noun clauses	.75	1.04	1.50[c]	.89	.63	1.04	1.04	1.41	1.61
Subordinate clauses	2.70	3.27	4.65	3.43	2.07	3.47	3.05	5.04	4.22
Main and subordinate clauses	21.52	28.96*	31.57[c]	21.68	21.38	30.04	27.71	31.63	31.50
T-units	18.60	25.62*	26.40[c]	17.86	19.25	26.54	24.54	26.31	26.50
T-unit words	114.22	157.21*	175.43[c]	111.82	116.31	162.86	150.63	176.34	174.39
Verbals	1.42	1.44	1.58	1.37	1.47	1.11	1.83	1.50	1.68
Ratios									
Number of clauses per T-unit	1.07	1.13	1.20*[c]	1.04	1.10	1.14	1.12	1.21	1.19
Subordination ratio	.13	.11	.15	.16	.10	.12	.11	.16	.13
Average length of clause	4.89	5.33*	5.57[c]	4.54	5.19	5.36	5.29	5.56	5.58
Number of verbals per T-unit	.08	.06	.06	.08	.08	.04	.08	.06	.06

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*Mean significantly higher than that for next lowest grade level; or in comparisons within grade level (in right-hand portion of table), mean is significantly higher than for other reading group at the same grade level ($p < .05$).

[a] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the highest third of their grade.

[b] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the lowest third of their grade.

[c] Mean significantly higher for A3 than for A1 grade ($p < .05$).

Measures of Variety

As a child gains command of a language, it seems likely that he would show this command through greater flexibility of expression and the use of a greater variety of syntactical structures. Although Loban and other research workers have emphasized the importance of flexibility in the child's use of language, the type-token ratio is the only quantitative measure of variety that has been used in research studies of language development. As explained in Chapter VIII, several different measures have been developed especially for use in this study.

Grade-level trends. Both second- and third-grade children excelled first-graders with respect to number of combinations of predication and verb types used; the differences were statistically significant (Table IX). A comparable statement can be made concerning the superiority of third-graders with respect to number of combinations of types of adverbials used and positions of these movables within the sentence.

Variety in the use of nominals was next studied. There was consistent and significant improvement with grade level in number of different nominal types used. With respect to number of infrequently used nominals, third-graders showed significant superiority over younger children. When number of different adjectives used in children's samples of oral language was considered, there was a consistent and significant improvement with grade level; in fact, third-graders used almost twice as many different adjectives as did first-graders.

Second- and third-graders significantly exceeded first-graders with respect to variety in the use of compounds (i.e. use of compound subjects, compound verbs, compound objects of prepositions, and the like).

As discussed in Chapter VIII, comparisons with respect to type-token ratio are affected by grade-level difference in sample size. That is, the larger the sample, the greater the tendency for the speaker to re-use words already introduced, especially function words; and the less the tendency to introduce new words in the same proportion. Hence, since first-graders had a mean sample size of only 185 words (as compared with 243 words for second-graders and 252 words for third-graders), it is not surprising to find that the first grade had the highest type-token ratio among the three grades studied. Second- and third-grade children, however, did significantly exceed first-graders with respect to the number of different words used in the language samples and with respect to the number of words added to the duplicated type-token list.

TABLE IX

MEASURES OF VARIETY: COMPARISON OF GRADE LEVEL MEANS AND COMPARISON OF MEANS OF HIGH READERS[a] AND LOW READERS[b] IN GRADES A1, A2, A3

Variable	Comparison of Means by Grade			Comparison of Means for High and Low readers					
				A1		A2		A3	
	A1	A2	A3	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Number of cases	59	52	60	27	32	28	24	32	28
Number of:									
Predication x verb types used	7.22	9.98^{*}	10.47^{c}	6.86	7.53	9.86	10.13	10.63	10.29
Adverbial type x position combination used	3.80	5.00^{*}	5.10^{c}	3.82	3.78	5.21	4.75	4.88	5.36
Nominal types used	2.90	3.87^{*}	5.12^{*c}	2.96	2.84	4.18	3.50	5.66*	4.50
Nominals of infrequently used types	1.32	1.67	2.97^{*c}	1.43	1.22	1.93	1.38	3.50	2.36
Different adjectives used	4.52	6.58^{*}	8.58^{*c}	4.46	4.56	7.64^{*}	5.33	8.78	8.36
Types of compounds used	.15	$.38^{*}$	$.47^{c}$	.18	.13	.36	.42	$.50^{*}$	.43
Types of verbals used	1.03	.96	1.12	.93	1.13	.71	1.25	1.06	1.18
Number of different uncommon:									
Prepositions used	1.17	1.56	2.02^{c}	1.41	.97	1.89^{*}	1.17	2.31	1.68
Adverbs used	3.76	5.35^{*}	5.55^{c}	3.89	3.66	5.18	5.54	5.69	5.39
Intensifiers used	.12	.27	$.35^{c}$	.07	.16	.29	.25	.41	.29
Number of expressions indicating tentativeness	.60	.77	1.12^{*c}	.70	.50	.93	.58	1.25	.96
Type-token analysis									
Number of different words used	82.48	103.98^{*}	111.60^{c}	83.93	81.22	105.79	101.88	114.16	108.68
Number of tokens	169.67	237.92^{*}	246.15^{c}	166.18	172.72	245.14	229.50	244.94	247.54
Type-token ratio	.56	.46	.47	.58	.54	.44	.48	$.50^{*}$	.45
Number of words added to type-token list	29.42	36.37^{*}	40.32^{c}	28.96	29.83	35.86	36.96	41.84	38.57

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*Mean significantly higher than that for next lowest grade level; or in comparisons within grade level (in right-hand portion of table), mean is significantly higher than for other reading group at the same grade level ($p < .05$).

[a] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the highest third of their grade.

[b] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the lowest third of their grade.

[c] Mean significantly higher for A3 than for A1 grade ($p < .05$).

When the study of adverbials was being made, the analyst tallied the number of times certain commonly used prepositions, adverbs, and intensifiers were used.[7] Whenever uncommon prepositions, adverbs, or intensifiers were used, these were written on the individual's summary sheet. With respect to all three types of function words, third-grade children used significantly more different uncommon words than did younger children. The difference was greatest with respect to intensifiers, for which third-graders used almost three times as many different uncommon words as did first-graders.

As a by-product of work done on the type-token ratios, a count was made of the number of expressions of tentativeness[8] used by each child. Third-grade children used almost twice as many of these expressions as did first-grade children; the difference was statistically significant.

Comparison of high- and low-reader groups. Results for the first two variety measures listed in Table IX revealed no significant differences between high- and low-reader groups. The three variety measures for nominals, however, consistently favor the high-reader groups at the second- and third-grade levels. With respect to the number of nominal types used, the high-reader groups were superior at all three grade-levels, with the difference at the third-grade level being statistically significant. With respect to number of different adjectives used, the only statistically significant difference was at the second-grade level, where the high-readers averaged eight different adjectives, as compared with only five for the low-readers. With respect to number of infrequently used nominals, the differences consistently favor the high-reader groups at all three grade-levels; however, these differences are not significant at the .05 level.

With respect to number of types of compounds and verbals, only one of the group comparisons significantly favors the high-readers; i.e. the third-grade high-readers exceeded the low-readers by a significant difference in number of types of compounds used.

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[7] Commonly used prepositions printed on the summary sheet were: at, in, on, to, and with. Commonly used adverbs were: here, not, now, off, out, and there. Commonly used intensifiers were: real (really), right, so, and very.

[8] The following expressions were considered to be expressions of tentativeness: could, couldn't, guess, if, kinda, may, maybe, might, perhaps, possible, possibly, somewhat, sorta, wonder, would, wouldn't.

With only two exceptions, high-readers consistently excelled low-readers with respect to number of different uncommon prepositions, adverbs, and intensifiers used. For the nine subgroup comparisons (three variables at three grade-levels), seven favored the high-readers. The only statistically significant difference favored second-grade high-readers, who exceeded low-readers in number of different uncommon prepositions used; the corresponding difference for the third grade was almost significant, with a t-ratio of 1.55.

At all three grade-levels, high-readers excelled low-readers with respect to mean number of expressions of tentativeness; at the second- and third-grade levels, the t-ratios were 1.59 and 1.38 respectively.

At the third-grade level, high-readers significantly excelled low-readers with respect to type-token ratio. With respect to number of words added to the duplicated type-token list, the differences were small and not significant.

Variations from Standard English

Approximately half of all variations from standard English were verb variations; and approximately one-half of these involved errors in the use of the third person singular. Only three other variations occurred more than four times per thousand words, i.e. nonstandard or confusing use of pronouns, awkward arrangement or incoherence, and omission of words (other than auxiliary verbs or pronouns which are summarized separately).

In Table X, the original data have been translated into ratios indicating the occurrence of each variation per thousand words. Only T-units were analyzed for variations. Means and standard deviations for the original data are given in Tables B-7 and B-8 in the Appendix.

Grade-level trends. There is a consistent decrease with grade-level in total number of variations, and in total number of verb variations, with the larger decrease occurring between grades 1 and 2. The number of errors made in the troublesome third person singular was only half as large in the third-grade as in the first-grade. Nonstandard use of verb forms decreased from nine per thousand in first-grade to only six per thousand in grades 2 and 3. Nonstandard or confusing use of pronouns, as well as errors classified as "awkward arrangement or incoherence", decreased markedly from first- to second-grade.

TABLE X

NUMBER OF VARIATIONS FROM STANDARD ENGLISH PER THOUSAND WORDS: COMPARISON OF GRADE LEVEL MEANS AND COMPARISON OF MEANS FOR HIGH^a READERS AND LOW^b READERS IN GRADES A1, A2, A3

Variable	Comparison of Means by Grade			Comparison of Means for High and Low readers					
				A1		A2		A3	
	A1	A2	A3	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Number of cases	59	52	60	27	32	28	24	32	28
Verb variations									
Lack of agreement of subject and verb									
Forms of verb "to be"	.7	.8	.7	1.0	.5	.9	.8	1.1	.4
Other verbs									
3rd person singular	18.5	12.3	9.6	18.9	18.1	9.6	15.7	7.1	12.5
Other forms	.3	.1	.7	.4	.3	.2	.0	.9	.4
Inconsistency in use of tense	1.9	.6	2.1	2.3	1.6	.4	.8	1.9	2.2
Omission of auxiliary verbs	.6	1.2	.6	.4	.9	.2	2.4	.3	.8
Nonstandard use of verb forms	9.4	5.8	6.3	8.6	10.0	3.9	8.2	6.6	6.0
Omission of verb "to be"	2.3	2.9	1.6	3.7	1.1	2.6	3.2	1.9	1.2
Total number of verb variations	33.7	23.7	21.6	35.3	32.5	17.8	31.1	19.8	23.5
Pronoun variations									
Nonstandard or confusing use of pronouns	4.4	2.5	3.2	4.6	4.1	2.2	2.9	3.9	2.5
Omission of pronouns	.3	.9	.3	.7	.0	.7	1.3	.3	.2
Syntactic confusion									
Ambiguous placement of a word, phrase or clause	.8	.4	.1	.0	1.4	.4	.5	.2	.0
Awkward arrangement or incoherence	6.0	3.8	4.3	6.0	5.8	2.6	5.3	4.6	4.1
Omission (except of auxiliary verbs or pronouns)	3.8	4.5	3.9	2.7	4.7	5.0	3.7	4.8	3.1
Unnecessary repetition	2.5	2.2	3.0	2.3	2.8	2.0	2.4	2.3	3.7

TABLE X--Continued

Variable	Comparison of Means by Grade			Comparison of Means for High and Low readers					
				A1		A2		A3	
	A1	A2	A3	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Number of cases	59	52	60	27	32	28	24	32	28
Other variations									
Nonstandard connectives									
Prepositions	1.8	1.5	1.8	1.7	2.0	.8	2.4	1.9	1.7
Conjunctions	.3	.4	.7	.0	.5	.4	.5	.3	1.0
Nonstandard modification									
Adjectival	1.7	2.2	1.4	2.3	1.1	1.5	2.9	1.1	1.8
Adverbial	1.2	3.2	2.4	1.0	1.4	1.7	5.0	2.7	2.1
Nonstandard noun forms	2.1	1.7	1.9	3.3	1.1	1.3	2.1	1.5	2.2
Double negatives and nonstandard use of possessives	1.8	1.3	1.3	2.0	1.6	.7	2.1	.5	2.2
Total number of variations	60.4	48.3	45.9	61.9	59.0	37.1	62.2	43.9	48.1

[a] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the highest third of their grade.

[b] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the lowest third of their grade.

In a few types of variations, there was no consistent decrease with grade level; e.g. omission of words (other than auxiliary verbs or pronouns): Some variations show an increase with grade, such as unnecessary repetition, nonstandard conjunctions, and nonstandard adverbial modifications. The omissions and repetitions may continue because of tendency of older children to talk more rapidly; the increase in the occurrence of nonstandard conjunctions and adverbial modifications undoubtedly reflect the greater use of more complex sentences by the older children.

Comparisons of high- and low-reader groups. At both the second- and third-grade levels, high-readers show fewer variations than low-readers in total number of variations and total number of verb variations. With respect to specific types of errors, high-readers also show fewer variations in: (1) use of the third person singular, (2) inconsistent use of tense, (3) omission of auxiliary verbs, (4) unnecessary repetition, (5) nonstandard adjectival modification structures, (6) nonstandard noun forms, and (7) double negatives and nonstandard use of possessives. For the following types of errors, high-readers had fewer variations than low-readers at both the first- and second-grade levels, but not at the third-grade level: (1) nonstandard use of verb forms, (2) nonstandard prepositions, and (3) nonstandard adverbial modification structures.

Intercorrelations Among Language Measures and Reading Achievement

Since the correlation matrix for preschool children (presented in Chapter X) revealed that many of the new language measures were a function of the number of T-unit words, the correlation matrix for primary-grade children (Table B-10) was limited to 50 cases with 180-220 T-unit words available for second-level analysis. Through this selection of cases, the pervasive effect of this variable on the intercorrelations was eliminated. Since this group of 50 children included thirteen A1 children, sixteen A2 children, and twenty-one A3 children, the homogeneity of the group has not been markedly reduced by this limitation in sample size. However, the size of intercorrelations for all variables related to sample size will be reduced because of the greater homogeneity of the group with respect to number of T-unit words.

Some of the significant correlations in the matrix reflect part-whole relationships; e.g. Variable 9 (number of adverbs) correlates .79 with Variable 6 (number of adverbials; and Variable 1 (number of verb variations) correlates .79 with Variable 5 (total number of variations).

There are a number of negative correlations which seem to indicate that a language sample which has a relatively large number of adverbial structures has relatively fewer adjectival structures, e.g. Variable 9 (number of adverbs) correlates -.38 with Variable 12 (number of types of nominals used) and -.49 with Variable 13 (number of different adjectives used). This tendency for children to "specialize", developing complexity in adverbial or nominal structures had been evident from an examination of individual summary sheets.

Of greatest interest are the correlations of language measures with reading achievement (i.e. corrected raw score on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I. The following correlations with reading achievement are significant at the .05 level.

Variable 12 (number of nominal types used), .29
Variable 19 (number of adjective clauses), .35
Variable 21 (number of infrequently used nominals), .30
Variable 24 (per cent of words in mazes), -.32
Variable 25 (per cent of words in reportage responsums), .52
Variable 30 (number of expressions of tentativeness), .29

Of these measures, Variables 12 and 21 were closely correlated (.78). Hence, only Variable 21 was included in the group of variables for which a multiple R would be computed for the prediction of reading achievement. In addition to the five remaining variables, four additional ones with correlations between .23 and .28 were included since the computer program would handle nine predictive variables. These additional four variables were:

Variable 9 (number of adverbs), -.22
Variable 13(number of different adjectives used), .24
Variable 28(mean length of three longest T-units without variations), .23
Variable 29(number of words added to type-token list), .22

Since the intercorrelations of all these variables are low, all nine variables were used to obtain a multiple R of .664 with reading achievement.

When end-of-project data are available, this study will be replicated to cross-validate the multiple R and to determine the relative weights of the variables in the prediction of reading achievement.

CHAPTER X

BASE-LINE DATA FOR PRESCHOOL AND KINDERGARTEN CHILDREN

Although the same oral language measures are used as for children in grades 1-3, the oral language data are presented separately for preschool and kindergarten children. There are at least three reasons why these data are not comparable with those for the primary grades: (1) the method of obtaining the oral language samples was different (i.e. tape recording of spontaneous speech, rather than interview by an adult), (2) the method of sampling used in the primary grades was modified so as to obtain a representative sampling of the children's activities during the morning or afternoon (see Appendix A), and (3) there are no comparisons for high- and low-readers since formal reading instruction is obviously not involved at these age levels. Hence, the data presented in this chapter serve chiefly as base-line data with which end-of-project data can be compared.

Since preschool children are volunteers, and kindergarten children probably constitute a representative sample of neighborhood children, even comparisons between the preschool and kindergarten group may not be justified. It will be interesting, however, to see in what measures the groups differ the most.

Sixty-four language samples of approximately 100 words each were obtained for 23 children in the preschool group; of these children, seven were thre-year-olds and sixteen were four-year-olds; the median age was 4-4. Sixty oral language samples were obtained from 23 kindergarten children, ranging in age from 5-6 to 6-5 at the time of taping, with a median age of 5-10. Hence the median age for kindergarten children was one and one-half years higher than for preschoolers. One would expect, therefore, that most language measures would favor the kindergarten group.

First-Level Analysis

Although the percentage of words in reportage responsums is almost identical for the two age levels, kindergarten children do have a smaller percentage of words in mazes and a larger percentage of words in T-units (Table XI) than do preschoolers.

Although there is a negligible difference in mean length of T-unit, kindergarten children show definite superiority to the younger group in terms of mean length of their three longest T-unit (6.70 words as compared to 5.81 words for preschoolers). They are also superior with respect to mean length of the three longest T-units without variations.

TABLE XI

FIRST-LEVEL ANALYSIS OF LANGUAGE SAMPLES FOR PRESCHOOL AND KINDERGARTEN CHILDREN[a]

Variable	Means		Standard Deviations	
	Preschool	Kindergarten	Preschool	Kindergarten
No. of words in language sample classified as:				
Mazes	18.48	11.60	10.77	10.05
Reportage responsums	21.35	20.75	20.67	12.00
T-units	57.77	57.52	19.33	21.00
Total no. of words	97.60	91.54	.94	2.39
Per cent of words in language sample classified as:				
Mazes	18.56	12.62	11.83	11.90
Reportage responsums	21.97	23.32	8.80	12.45
T-units	59.45	62.83	13.08	15.60
No. of T-units	14.50	13.68	5.16	9.91
Mean length of:				
All T-units	4.02	4.27	.86	.90
Three longest T-units	5.81	6.70	1.30	1.49
Three longest T-units without variations	5.20	5.96	1.02	1.61

[a] Samples of spontaneous speech obtained by use of a microphone, worn on a shoulder band, which transmitted as a miniature sending station, to a tape recorder. At the preschool level, 64 one-hundred-word samples from 23 children were selected according to the procedures in Appendix A; at the kindergarten level, 60 samples were obtained from 23 children.

Types of Predication Patterns and Verbs

In Table XII the only difference between age groups in predication patterns seems to be an increase with age in Type IV patterns (Subject + Transitive Verb + Object) and a decrease in the percentage of Type II patterns (Subject + Linking Verb + Predicate Adjective). These changes may be attributable to differences in language-eliciting situations rather than to maturity since the use of the Type IV pattern ordinarily decreases with age (see Table V for Malabar primary-grade data).

More consistent with findings from other studies is the decrease from preschool to kindergarten in the use of the present tense and the increase in the use of modal auxiliaries.

Types of Adverbials

Kindergarten pupils use somewhat more verbs than do preschoolers (5.83 as compared to 4.73 per 100-word sample). Although there is a slight increase in percentage of verbs modified (from 38 per cent in preschool to 41 per cent in kindergarten) these percentages are considerably below the 54-55 per cent, typical of Malabar primary-grade children (Tables VI, XIII). As one would expect, the mean number of adverbials per sample is higher in the kindergarten than preschool, with the increase taking place mainly in the use of more adverbs and more adverb phrases; the use of adverb clauses is negligible, and the use of intensifiers actually decreases.

Types of Nominals

On the whole, Table XIV shows negligible differences between preschool and kindergarten pupils with respect to use of nominals. Both groups have high percentages of unmodified nominals (86 per cent for preschool and 89 per cent for kindergarten, as compared with approximately 81 per cent for first-grade children.

Measures of Subordination

Preschool and kindergarten children make little use of subordinate clauses (Table XV); only 4 per cent of their T-units contained subordinate clauses as compared with 7 per cent for first-graders and 20 per cent for third-graders (Table VIII). Adjective clauses are rarely used; adverb clauses and noun clauses (usually involving indirect discourse) are used more frequently at a rate of approximately one clause per 300-400 words spoken. The mean length of clause (main and subordinate) was four words for both preschool and kindergarten children.

TABLE XII

TYPES OF PREDICATION PATTERNS AND VERBS USED BY PRESCHOOL AND KINDERGARTEN CHILDREN[a]

Variable	Means		Standard Deviations	
	Preschool	Kindergarten	Preschool	Kindergarten
Percentage of predications of each type:				
Type I	39.14	40.07	23.33	19.13
II	8.80	4.42	14.64	5.85
III	9.42	7.07	15.66	9.26
IV	39.71	45.82	22.72	19.20
V	2.32	2.50	4.51	4.03
VI	.40	.27	1.82	1.18
Percentage of verbs of each type:				
Present tense	65.09	55.60	21.84	21.36
Present progressive	5.02	3.78	7.12	6.19
Past tense	9.19	10.87	10.22	13.32
Past progressive	.40	.58	1.90	1.99
Modal auxiliary + base form of verb[b]	8.96	18.03	10.86	14.94
Modal auxiliary + infinitive[b]	8.68	9.15	15.67	11.39
Variations of present and past progressive[c]	.17	.00	.96	.00
Miscellaneous	2.45	2.15	1.26	.53

[a] Samples of spontaneous speech obtained by use of a microphone, worn on a shoulder band, which transmitted as a miniature sending station, to a tape recorder. At the preschool level, 64 one-hundred-word samples from 23 children were selected according to the procedures in Appendix A; at the kindergarten level, 60 samples were obtained from 23 children.

[b] Other than "shall" or "will".

[c] Such as "get" or "keep" + present participle; or similar verbs + past participle.

TABLE VI

TYPES OF ADVERBIALS: COMPARISON OF GRADE LEVEL MEANS AND COMPARISON OF MEANS FOR HIGH READERS[a] AND LOW READERS[b] IN GRADES A1, A2, A3

Variable	Comparison of Means by Grade			Comparison of Means for High and Low readers					
				A1		A2		A3	
	A1	A2	A3	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Number of cases	59	52	60	27	32	28	24	32	28
Number of verbs	22.1	30.0*	32.5[c]	22.1	22.1	31.0	28.9	32.6	32.4
Number of verbs modified	12.0	16.1*	17.7[c]	12.3	11.7	16.8	15.4	17.2	18.3
Per cent of verbs modified	54.3	53.7	54.5	55.7	52.9	54.2	53.3	52.8	56.5
Types of adverbials									
Number of intensifiers	.4	.8*	1.1[c]	.4	.3	.9	.8	1.1	1.1
Number of adverbs	9.8	13.7*	13.1[c]	10.2	9.5	14.0	13.5	12.6	13.6
Number of adverb phrases	4.6	6.2*	7.7[c]	4.7	4.5	6.6	5.8	8.4	6.9
Number of adverb clauses	1.7	2.0	2.3	2.3	1.3	2.1	1.9	2.4	2.3
Total number of adverbials	16.5	22.8*	24.2[c]	17.5	15.5	23.6	22.0	24.5	23.9
Ratios									
Ratio of intensifiers/verbs	.01	.02*	.03[c]	.01	.01	.02	.02	.03	.03
Ratio of adverbs/verbs	.36	.46*	.39	.33	.40	.46	.45	.37	.40
Ratio of adverb phrases/verbs	.16	.15	.20*	.16	.16	.16	.15	.23	.17
Ratio of adverb clauses/verbs	.06	.06	.07	.07	.05	.06	.06	.07	.06
Ratio of total adverbials/verbs	.59	.69*	.69[c]	.57	.62	.70	.69	.70	.66
Ratio of adverbials/verbs modified	1.15	1.35*	1.33[c]	1.09	1.21	1.39	1.31	1.39*	1.25

*Mean significantly higher than that for next lowest grade level; or in comparisons within grade level (in right-hand portion of table), mean is significantly higher than for other reading group at the same grade level ($p < .05$).

[a] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the highest third of their grade.

[b] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the lowest third of their grade.

[c] Mean significantly higher for A3 than for A1 grade ($p < .05$).

TABLE XIII

TYPES OF ADVERBIALS USED BY PRESCHOOL AND KINDERGARTEN CHILDREN[a]

	Means		Standard Deviations	
Variable	Preschool	Kindergarten	Preschool	Kindergarten
Number of verbs	12.53	14.25	6.11	5.77
Number of verbs modified	4.73	5.83	3.08	3.01
Per cent of verbs modified	37.75	40.91	b	b
Types of adverbials				
No. of intensifiers	.53	.28	.83	.52
No. of adverbs	3.70	4.62	2.57	2.78
No. of adv. phrases	1.36	1.78	1.41	1.84
No. of adv. clauses	.22	.25	.74	.54
Total no. of adverbials	5.81	6.93	3.85	3.75
Ratios				
Ratio of intensifiers/verbs	.04	.02	.06	.05
Ratio of adverbs/verbs	.29	.35	.20	.22
Ratio of adv. phrases/verbs	.08	.10	.11	.13
Ratio of adv. clauses/verbs	.02	.02	.04	.04
Ratio of total adverbials/verbs	.43	.49	b	b
Ratio of adverbials/verbs modified	1.14	1.16	.37	.27

[a] Samples of spontaneous speech obtained by use of a microphone, worn on a shoulder band, which transmitted as a miniature sending station, to a tape recorder. At the preschool level, 64 one-hundred-word samples from 23 children were selected according to the procedures in Appendix A; at the kindergarten level, 60 samples were obtained from 23 children.

[b] Standard deviations are not available since the percentages (or ratios) were computed on the basis of group means.

TABLE XIV

TYPES OF NOMINALS USED BY PRESCHOOL AND KINDERGARTEN CHILDREN[a]

Variable	Means		Standard Deviations	
	Preschool	Kindergarten	Preschool	Kindergarten
Number of nominals of:				
Type Ia (single-word nominals, nouns + determiners, proper names)	15.55	18.53	8.54	7.89
Type Ib (unmodified noun adjuncts)	.03	.07	.02	.02
Type IIa (one adjective modifier + Ia or Ib)	.98	1.07	1.42	1.00
Type IIc (simple prepositional phrase modifier)	.13	.13	.38	.46
Type IIIb (nouns, noun adjuncts, or pronouns inflected as possessives)	1.06	.93	1.50	1.47
All other types	.31	.18	.56	.39
Total number of nominals	18.06	20.92	9.80	8.68
Per cent of unmodified nominals (Ia + Ib)	86.27	88.91	20.89	8.55

[a] Samples of spontaneous speech obtained by use of a microphone, worn on a shoulder band, which transmitted as a miniature sending station, to a tape recorder. At the preschool level, 64 one-hundred-word samples from 23 children were selected according to the procedures in Appendix A; at the kindergarten level, 60 samples were obtained from 23 children.

TABLE XV

MEASURES OF SUBORDINATION FOR PRESCHOOL AND KINDERGARTEN CHILDREN[a]

Variable	Means		Standard Deviations	
	Preschool	Kindergarten	Preschool	Kindergarten
Number of:				
Adverb clauses	.22	.25	.74	.54
Adjective clauses	.08	.02	.32	.13
Noun clauses	.36	.32	.60	.59
Subordinate clauses	.66	.59	b	b
Main + subordinate clauses	15.16	14.27	6.26	5.68
T-units	14.50	13.68	5.16	9.91
T-unit words	57.77	57.52	19.33	21.00
Verbals	.11	.25	.01	.03
Ratios				
Number of clauses per T-unit	1.05	1.04	.24	.60
Subordination ratio	.05	.04	b	b
Average length of clauses	3.95	4.09	1.54	.82
Number of verbals per T-unit	.01	.02	b	b

[a] Samples of spontaneous speech obtained by use of a microphone, worn on a shoulder band, which transmitted as a miniature sending station, to a tape recorder. At the preschool level, 64 one-hundred-word samples from 23 children were selected according to the procedures in Appendix A; at the kindergarten level, 60 samples were obtained from 23 children.

[b] Standard deviations are not available since the percentages (or ratios) were computed on the basis of group means.

Measures of Variety

Kindergarten children had higher scores in almost all of the variety measures listed in Table XVI. The largest differences favoring the kindergarten group were in number of verbals used (.27 as compared to .06 for preschoolers); number of expressions of tentativeness (.62 as compared with .27 for preschoolers); and number of words added to type-token list (19.42 as compared to 15.58 for preschoolers).

Intercorrelations Among Language Measures

In Appendix B is a correlation matrix for thirty-one of the 76 measures used in the study of oral language (Table B-9). These variables are identical with the oral language measures correlated for the primary-grade study. They were selected as measures which might be related to linguistic maturity and/or later reading ability. By the time of the final report, we plan to replicate this intercorrelation matrix and apply factor analysis techniques to the correlations obtained.

Although a more thorough analysis of these intercorrelations will be made at a later date, the following findings are of interest because they involve measures developed especially for this study.

1. Variable 28 (mean length of three longest T-units without variations) has significant correlations with several variety measures:
   Variable 11 (number of predication patterns x verb combinations), .59
   Variable 12 (number of nominal types used), .56
   Variable 13 (number of different adjectives used), .46
   Variable 14 (number of adverbial types x position combinations used), .46

2. Variable 11 (number of cells occupied in a grid of predication patterns x verb combinations) is a function of number of words in T-units available for analysis; i.e. it correlates .79 with number of verbs. Hence, its correlations are best studied in samples which are homogeneous with respect to sample length, as in the primary-grade intercorrelation study reported in Chapter IX. To a lesser degree, Variable 14 is a function of number of words available for analysis, correlating .51 with number of verbs.

TABLE XVI

MEASURES OF VARIETY FOR PRESCHOOL AND KINDERGARTEN CHILDREN[a]

Variable	Means		Standard Deviations	
	Preschool	Kindergarten	Preschool	Kindergarten
No. of predication X verb types used	7.11	8.28	3.01	2.75
No. of adverbial type X position combinations used	2.59	2.85	1.75	1.24
No. of nominal types used	1.47	1.52	1.03	1.01
No. of different adjectives used	1.88	1.93	1.63	1.46
No. of infrequently used types of nominals	.31	.18	.56	.39
No. of types of compounds used	.02	.05	.12	.22
No. of types of verbals used	.06	.27	.01	.03
No. of diff. uncommon:				
prepositions used	.40	.40	.08	.05
adverbs used	1.69	1.85	.17	.24
intensifiers used	.29	.12	.22	.02
No. of expressions indicating tentativeness	.27	.62	.03	.08
Type-token analysis				
No. of different words used	56.86	53.08	9.73	14.53
No. of tokens	95.05	86.00	1.23	2.40
Type-token ratio	.60	.63	.10	.11
No. of words added to type-token list	15.58	19.42	9.62	4.41

[a] Samples of spontaneous speech obtained by use of a microphone, worn on a shoulder band, which transmitted as a miniature sending station, to a tape recorder. At the preschool level, 64 one-hundred-word samples from 23 children were selected according to the procedures in Appendix A; at the kindergarten level, 60 samples were obtained from 23 children.

3. Variable 12 (number of nominal types used), Variable 13 (number of different adjectives used), and Variable 29 (number of different words added to type-token list) are also functions of sample length (correlating .46, .43, and .49 respectively with number of verbs, which reflect, in turn, the number of T-unit words available for analysis).

Since correlations for preschool children were computed first, the information given in points 2 and 3 above constituted the basis for the decision to compute intercorrelations for primary-grade children on the basis of those language samples which had 180-220 words in T-units, i.e. available for second-level analysis.

PART THREE

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

CHAPTER XI

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter the findings of the oral language research are reviewed, i.e. reliability of oral language measures, grade level trends in oral language, comparisons of high and low readers on oral language measures; and baseline data for preschool and kindergarten children. No attempt is made in this chapter to present in condensed form the philosophy and practices of the instructional program nor the steps which have been taken to develop parent classroom participation, prepare instructional materials, and develop instruments for the description of the instructional program and teachers' reactions thereto. These are reviewed in the Resume and not repeated in this chapter. Recommendations for next steps in the Project and in the language research are given.

Reliability of oral language measures. Inter-rater reliabilities for measures used in the first-level analysis ranged from .69 for per cent of words classified as reportage responsums to .95 for mean length of the three longest T-units. Five of the six coefficients were above .80. With two exceptions (Type II and Type V predications), the inter-rater reliability coefficients for types of predications were above .80. All of the inter-rater reliability coefficients for types of verbs and adverbials were highly satisfactory. Although three coefficients for nominals were below .80, the lowest was .67; all were adequate for group comparisons. Although the inter-rater reliability for verbals was unsatisfactory, other measures of subordination had reliabilities above .80. Two of the twelve measures of variety had unsatisfactory inter-rater reliability, i.e. number of types of compounds and number of types of verbals used. The reliability coefficient for total number of variations was above .80 and that for verb variations was .61; both are adequate for group comparisons.

The reliability of language measures across interview situations was naturally much lower. The following measures had reliability coefficients above .80 even when samples were obtained on two occasions by two different interviewers and analyzed by two different language analysts: (1) number of words classified as maze material, (2) number of words classified as T-unit words, (3) number of words spoken in interview, (4) number of T-units. These measures were based on the entire Oral Language Interview. The following measures (based on 300-word samples) had reliability coefficients of .65 or above: mean length of the three longest T-units, per cent of verbs classified as present tense, past tense, and as past progressive, number of single-word nominals, number of clauses, and number of different uncommon intensifiers used. An additional seventeen measures had an across-situation reliability coefficient of at least .50, which is adequate for group comparisons.

Grade-level trends in oral language measures. The following grade-level trends were observed in the analysis of oral language data for children in grades 1 through 3. Means for the following measures decrease consistently with grade level: per cent of words classified as reportage responsums, total number of variations from standard English, and total number of verb variations. Means for the following first-level language measures increased consistently with grade level: (1) per cent of words in T-units, (2) length of T-unit, (3) length of three longest T-units, (4) length of three longest T-units without variations from standard English, (5) ratio of total adverbials to verbs, (6) ratio of adverbials to verbs modified, (7) number of infrequently used nominals, (8) number of subordinate clauses, (9) ratio of clauses to T-units, (10) number of noun clauses, (11) number of adjective clauses, (12) length of clause, (13) number of combinations of predications with verb types used, (14) number of combinations of types of adverbials with positions of these movables within the sentence, (15) number of different nominal types used, (16) number of infrequently used nominals, (17) number of different adjectives used, (18) number of different types of compounds used, (19) number of different uncommon prepositions, adverbs, and intensifiers used, (20) number of expressions of tentativeness; and (21) number of words added to duplicated type-token list.

Comparisons of high- and low-reader groups on oral language measures. The high-reader groups (Mexican-American pupils scoring in the highest third of their group on the *Stanford Reading Test*) were compared with the low-reader groups (those scoring in the lowest third) on all language measures. For the following measures, the high-reader group excelled the low-reader group on at least two of the three grade levels: (1) lower percentage of maze material, (2) longer mean length of T-unit, (3) longer mean length of three longest T-units, (4) higher ratio of adverbials to verbs modified, (5) greater use of Type IIa and IIc modifiers (i.e. those involving the use of a single adjective or single adjective phrase), (6) larger number of infrequently used nominals, (7) lower per cent of unmodified nominals, (8) larger number of subordinate clauses used, (9) more frequent use of adverb and adjective clauses, (10) more different nominal types used, (11) larger number of infrequently used nominals, (12) larger number of infrequently used prepositions and adverbs, (13) larger number of expressions of tentativeness, (14) smaller number of variations from standard English and (15) fewer verb variations.

Baseline data for preschool and kindergarten children. Since preschool children were volunteers and kindergarten children probably constitute a representative sample of neighborhood children, comparison between the two groups may not be justified. However, since the kindergarten children are, on the average, one and one-half years older than the preschoolers, it is not surprising that they showed superiority with respect to the following measures: (1) a smaller per cent of words in mazes, (2) a larger per cent of words in T-units, (3) a gain of almost one word in mean length of three longest T-units and also in mean length of three longest T-units without variations from standard English, (4) use of more verbs, and an increase in per cent of verbs modified, (5) increased use of adverbs and adverb phrases, (6) use of more verbals and more expressions of tentativeness, and (7) use of more words not appearing on the duplicated type-token list.

Intercorrelations among language measures. Since the correlation matrices for the preschool and primary-grade groups were completed just as this report went to press, they are presented with a minimum of interpretation. When end-of-project data are available, these correlation matrices will be replicated with new data.

The preschool results which were computed first made it evident that several language measures were a function of the number of T-unit words available for second-level analysis. Hence, the correlation matrix for the primary grades was computed for 50 cases which were homogeneous in this respect, i.e. had 180-220 T-unit words. For this sample, several language measures were found to have low positive correlations with reading achievement; the multiple R of these measures with reading achievement was .664.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made for the project in both language research and in the classroom.

A. Instruction

1. The preschool program, staffed by bilingual teachers should be continued.

2. The Malabar preschool should serve as a center for the expansion of the education of children below the age of five within the home environment.

3. The project instruction and experimentation should be expanded to all teachers in grades K through 6. The entire school should become a model school providing quality instruction in an urban setting.

4. Increasing emphasis should be given to improving instruction in mathematics and science with the utilization of outside business and professional experts in each field.

5. Instruction in the Spanish language, Mexican history, dance, and other cultural activities should be continued and expanded.

6. The development of specially prepared bilingual books and other instructional materials which are based on the academic and language needs of Mexican-American children should be continued and expanded.

7. Released time should be provided teachers for project-related responsibilities and home visitations.

8. Recruitment training, and employment of Mexican-American college students should be continued but expanded from their present role as project research assistants to include participation in classroom instruction.

9. Parental advice on the instruction of their children in the Malabar classrooms should be increasingly sought and utilized.

10. Parent participation in the classrooms should be continued and expanded.

B. Language Research

1. The oral language research currently under way at Malabar, should be expanded to include grades 4 through 6; thus providing an opportunity for a longitudinal study of the relationship of oral-language-syntax competency to reading ability.

2. A pilot program should be initiated to determine whether stimulation of the child's pre-linguistic utterances and early language development in the home will result in increased language competency upon entrance to preschool.

3. With the professional assistance of bilingual Mexican-American professors at the university level, the children's oral language competency should be expanded to include investigation of the following:

(a) Under what language-eliciting situations do children respond most readily in Spanish or in English?

(b) Under what circumstances does the Spanish-speaking child feel constrained to mask his Spanish oral language competency?

(c) What is the relationship of reading achievement to competency in verbal mediation in Spanish and in English?

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APPENDIX A.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR LANGUAGE ANALYSIS
AND
FORMS USED IN THE PROJECT
AND
TEST RESULTS

INSTRUCTIONS FOR SAMPLING

Primary grades

The second-level analysis is to be done on a sample of 300 words (100 words taken from each section of the interview), i.e. 100 words from the TV section, 100 from the Toy Section, and 100 from the Picture Section.

If any one section has insufficient words, take words from the previous or following section, whichever has more.

EXAMPLE:

	No.of Words	No.analyzed	Explanation
TV Section	105	100	Mark off 100 of the 105
Toy Section	60	60	Mark off all the 60 and 40 of the following
Picture Section	180	140	Mark off 100 (in addition to the 40 already taken)

The total should approximate 300 words if you can obtain this number from the three sections. If there are not enough words altogether, all the interview is used; in other words, no sampling needs to be done. The total number of words to be analyzed is noted in green ink at the end of the typescript.

Kindergarten and preschool

Each transcript was marked off into 100-word units of the child's language. The following procedute was used in selecting random sampling for each transcript: Slips of paper numbered 1 through 20 were placed in a receptacle. If the transcript for a child for a given preschool session consisted of 700 words, slips of paper were chosen at random until three numbers under 8 appeared. If the numbers 1, 2, and 4 were selected, the first hundred words, the second hundred, and the fourth hundred were selected for analysis. If the transcript had 1300 words, numbers were chosen at random until three numbers of under 14 had been choseen. If the transcript contained less than 300 words, one or two 100-word samples were utilized. The shortest transcript used contained 101 words. Transcripts containing less than 100 words were not included in the study.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR VERB ANALYSIS, PREDICATION PATTERNS AND IDENTIFICATION OF ADVERBIALS

1. On an overlay transparent sheet, number each T-unit and the corresponding analysis, starting with 1 and through to the end of the transcript. If there are compound verbs, use "a", "b", and "c" to identify them, and use a brace to enclose them.

EXAMPLES:

1a) 1b)
He/took the glass of milk and/drank it and
1c)
/put it down.

2a) 2b)
Go/get the rabbit.

Columns	1	2	3	4
1a)	4	-	IV	-
1b)	4	-	IV	-
1c)	4	-	IV	AV
2a)	1	-	I_R*	-
2b)	1	-	IV_R*	-

*Subscript "R" indicates a T-unit request pattern.

2. COLUMN ONE - Indicate tense, using the following numerical code:

Type 1.	Present	Go, see, give, does, have
2.	Present Progressive	Am going, are saying, are giving
3.	Present Perfect	Have gone, have given
4.	Past	Went, was, gave, saw
5.	Past Progressive	Was going, were saying
6.	Past Perfect	Had gone, had seen, had given
7.	Future	Will go, will be, will have
8.	Future Progressive	Will be going, will be saying
9.	Future Perfect	Will have gone, will have been
10.	Present Perf.Progr.	The boy has been singing.
11.	Past Perf.Progr.	The girls had been singing.
12.	Future Perf.Progr.	The men shall have been working.
13.	Modal Auxiliaries (other than shall or will) used with the base form of verb.	

EXAMPLES:

would, should, can, could + base form	can sing
may, might + base form	may go
do, does, did + base form	do go, does sing
must + base form	must sing
had better + base form	had better go
had best + base form	had best sing

14. Modal auxiliaries (other than shall or will) + an infinitive.

EXAMPLES:

have, had, has + an infinitive	has to go
ought + an infinitive	ought to sing
used + an infinitive	used to swim
get, gets, got + an infinitive	got to go
be going, am, is, are was, were + an infinitive	am to go, was to sing

15. Variations of present and past progressive

EXAMPLES:

get, got, gets + present participle	get shot, get lost
keeps, keeps on + past participle	keeps going

3. COLUMN TWO - Indicate:

- Agreement of subject and verb

V Variations from standard usage (disagreement of subject + verb; other variations such as: ain't, gots, "it starts on fire", etc.)

Note: These variations are subsequently classified into categories.

4. COLUMN THREE - Indicate predication patterns by the use of Roman numerals.

A. Types of predication patterns

I. Nominal (subject) + intransitive verbs.
The car/runs.

II. Nominal (subject) + linking verb + predicate adjective.
The car/is new.

III. Nominal (subject) + linking verb + predicate nominative.
The man/is a teacher.

IV. Nominal (subject) + transitive verb + nominal (direct object).
The man/saw the car.

V. Nominal (subject) + transitive verb + indirect object + direct object.
He/gave him the book.

VI. Subject holder + intransitive verb + nominal (subject).
There is a/car.
Here is a/book.

B. Notations of questions, requests, and use of passive voice.

1. If a T-unit is a question, add Q in column 3 under the roman numeral.
2. If it has the word order of a statement and is recognized as a question only by intonation encircle the letter Q.
3. If a T-unit has its verb in the passive voice, encircle the predication number (Roman numeral).
4. If a T-unit is a request (imperative), add R in column 3 under Roman numeral.

EXAMPLES:

1) Can/you give me the book?	1) 13 - $\underset{Q}{\text{V}}$ -
2) You/can give me the book?	2) 13 - $\underset{\boxed{Q}}{\text{V}}$ -

5. COLUMN FOUR - Indicate the use of modifiers of verbs (if any) in the sentence as well as in column 4.

A. Underline the adverb and write AV.

EXAMPLES:

1) $\underline{\text{He/is talking}}\ \underset{AV}{\underline{\text{now}}}.$	1) 2 - I AV
2) $\underline{\text{I}\ \underset{AV}{\text{don't}}\ \text{know}}.$	2) 13 - I AV
3) $\underline{\text{We/pick}}\ \text{it}\ \underset{AV}{\underline{\text{up}}}.$	3) 1 - IV AV
4) $\underline{\text{He/ate}}\ \text{it}\ \underset{AV}{\underline{\text{all}}}$	4) 4 - IV AV

B. Underline the intensifier and write I.

EXAMPLE:

5) $\underline{\text{She/sings}}\ \underset{I}{\underline{\text{real}}}\ \underset{AV}{\underline{\text{good}}}.$	5) 1 - I I/AV

Examples of common intensifiers:

very, pretty, so, too, more, really, right

C. Use parentheses around adverbial phrases and write AVP.

EXAMPLE:

6) $\underline{\text{He/fell}}\ \underset{AVP}{\text{(in there)}}$	6) 4 - I AVP

D. Use brackets around adverbial clauses and write AVC. Since it is helpful in later analyses to identify noun clauses at this time use brackets around noun clauses and write NC.

EXAMPLES:

8)
7) I/am going [where I/can play].
AVC

10)
9) I/remember [what it/was].
NC

$\begin{cases} 7) & 2 & - & \text{I} & \text{AVC} \\ 8) & 13 & - & \text{I} & - \end{cases}$

$\begin{cases} 9) & 1 & - & \text{IV} & \text{NC} \\ 10) & 4 & - & \text{I} & - \end{cases}$

NOTE: Use a brace to enclose two or more verbs in one T-unit.

EXAMPLES OF PREDICATION PATTERNS AND VERB TYPES

PREDICATE PATTERN I: NOMINAL (SUBJECT) + INTRANSITIVE VERB

			Columns			
			1	2	3	4
1.	The dog/barks.	1)	1	-	I	-
2.	I/think.	2)	1	-	I	-
3.	You/are here. AV	3)	1	-	I	AV
4.	The dogs/are barking.	4)	2	-	I	-
5.	He/is going home. AV	5)	2	-	I	AV
6.	The dog/has gone.	6)	3	-	I	-
7.	Dogs/barked.	7)	4	-	I	-
8.	We/went home. AV	8)	4	-	I	AV
9.	He/was scared (by the dog.) AVP	9)	4	-	I	AVP
10.	The boy/was playing.	10)	5	-	I	-
11.	The dogs/had barked.	11)	6	-	I	-
12.	He/will go.	12)	7	-	I	-
13.	The boy/will be waiting.	13)	8	-	I	-
14.	The children/will have gone.	14)	9	-	I	-
15.	He/has been swimming.	15)	10	-	I	-
16.	The dog/had been barking.	16)	11	-	I	-
17.	The dog/will have been barking.	17)	12	-	I	-
18.	You/may go.	18)	13	-	I	-
19.	It/would be.	19)	13	-	I	-
20.	I/don't know. AV	20)	13	-	I	AV

21. I/don't like them to break it. 21) 13 - IV AV
AV
22. I/am going to go. 22) 14 - I -

23. He/goes to sleep. 23) 14 - I -

24. It/keeps going. 24) 15 - I -

25. It/gets going. 25) 15 - I -

QUESTIONS

26. Are/you/going? 26) 2 - I -
Q
27. Where's my dime? 27) 1 - I
Q
28. What's going on? 28) 2 - I AV
AV
Q

REQUESTS

29. Just/leave 29) 1 - I AV
AV
R
30. /Get shot. 30) 15 - I -
R

PREDICATE PATTERN II: NOMINAL (SUBJECT) + LINKING VERB + PREDICATE ADJECTIVE

31. Mother/gets mad. 31) 1 - II -

32. He/is scared (afraid) 32) 1 - II -

33. They/get nervous. 33) 1 - II -

34. They/all look cute. 34) 1 - II -

35. It's dark (outa ah window?) 35) 1 V II AVP
AVP
Q
36. His face/will turn black. 36) 7 - II -

4

PREDICATE PATTERN III: NOMINAL (SUBJECT) + LINKING VERB + PREDICATE NOMINATIVE

37. The next boy/is John. 37) 1 - III

38. This/is Batman's. 38) 1 - III -

39. The robot/'s named Clank. 39) 1 - III -
41)
40. That/'s[all I/can do] {40) 1 - III NC
NC {41) 13 - I -

PREDICATE PATTERN IV: NOMINAL (SUBJECT) + TRANSITIVE VERB + NOMINAL (DIRECT OBJECT)

42. He/gets a lot of money. 42) 1 - IV -

43. Bozo/makes us laugh. 43) 1 - IV -
45)
44. The boy/says["Here I/come".] {44) 1 - IV NC
AV NC {45) 1 - I AV

46. He/learned to jump. 46) 4 - IV -

47. They/put her there. 47) 4 - IV AV
AV
48. I/don't like my dress. 48) 13 - IV AV
AV
49. I/'m going to ask the teacher. 49) 14 - IV -

50. /Get some more. 50) 1 - IV -
R

PREDICATE PATTERN V: NOMINAL (SUBJECT) + TRANSITIVE VERB + INDIRECT OBJECT + DIRECT OBJECT

51. /Give him the book. 51) 1 - V -

52. He/showed her the way. 52) 4 - V -

PREDICATE PATTERN VI: SUBJECT HOLDER + INTRANSITIVE VERB + NOMINAL (SUBJECT)

53. There are/the toys. 53) 1 - VI -

54. There's/a liddo boy. 54) 1 - VI -

ANALYSIS OF POSITION AND TALLY OF ADVERBS, INTENSIFIERS, ADVERBIAL PHRASES, AND ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

INSTRUCTIONS:

I. Divide the left margin of the verb analysis overlay into five columns, and label in the following order:
#, AV, I, AVP, AVC.

II. Check column 4 of the analysis already completed (on overlay, at the right), to identify those verbs that have modifiers. Write the number of each of these verbs in the first column. Those verbs (known as the modificands) will be examined in order to tally their modifiers and the positions of those modifiers.

III. Next, a letter (denoting position of the modifier) is placed in the appropriate column. The choice of column is based on whether the modifier is an adverb, intensifier, adverbial phrase, or adverbial clause.

IV. For intensifiers: An "X" is placed in column 3. (It is not analyzed for position.)

A letter (A, B, C, or D) is placed in one of the remaining columns, as follows:

A.	Modifier before the subject.	Den Casper/cries. AV
B.	Modifier between the subject and verb.	I/always pick dat one. AV
C.	Modifier in between parts of the verb.	I/don't know. AV
D.	Modifier after the verb.	Dey/fall down. AV

V. Multiple modifiers.

A. When a verb has two or more modifiers, a letter denoting the position of each modifier is placed in the appropriate column(s).

EXAMPLE:

#	AV	I	AVP	AVC
1)	A		D	

1) Den I/ran (to the door).
(A) AV (D) AVP

1)	4	-	I	AV AVP

B. If there are two or more modifiers of the same type (two adverbs, for example), one letter is indicated for each position; or if they are in the same position, then a number before the letter indicating the number of modifiers that are in that position.

EXAMPLES:

2)	A,D			
3)	2C			

2) Then they/go home.
(A) AV (D) AV

3) She/didn't really hurt her.
(C) AV (C) AV

2) 1 - I AV^2

3) 13 - IV AV^2

VI. Also, the letters denoting position should be placed under the corresponding modifiers in parentheses and to the left of the previous notations, (AV, I, AVP, AVC).

Note: There should be constant checking back and forth between the left and right sides of the overlay, so that the number of symbols of the left agrees with those on the right.

VII. Compound predicates.

When a T-unit contains a compound predicate with separate modifiers for each part of the predicate, then write 4a) and 4b) separately and count as two modificands.

EXAMPLE:

4a)	D		D	
4b)			D	

4) He/was taking evy'ting (away from a man) too.
(D)AVP (D) AV

4b) ...an/trowing dem (out of da window).
(D)AVP

4a) 5 - IV AV
AVP

4b) 5 - IV AVP

VIII. Write your initials with date on front sheet, right hand side, below tally grid.

EXAMPLE SHEET

#	AV	I	AVP	AVC		
1			D		1) I/look (at one picture). (D) AVP	1) 1 - I AVP
2			D		2) It/looks (like a real dolly). (D) AVP	2) 1 - I AVP
3			D		3) /get (in there). (D) AVP	3) 1 - I AVP R
4	D				4) He/ate it fast. (D) AV	4) 4 - II AV
5	A				5) Even my mother/likes it. (A)AV	5) 1 - I AV
6	C				6) He/keeps on going. (C) AV	6) 15 - I AV
7	D				7) We/pick it up (D)AV	7) 1 - IV AV
8				A	8) 9) [When they/kick 'em] dey/l'l fall down. (A)AVC (D) AV	8) 1 - IV -
9	D					9) 7 - I AV AVC
10				A	10) [An... when there's/ school days] [and (A)AVC	10) 1 V VI -
11	C				11) I/don't have nothin to play with] .[or (C)AV (A)AVC	11) 13 V IV AV
12			D		12) Nobody/wants to play (with me)] . (A)AVC (D)AVP	12) 1 - IV AVP
13			D	3A	13) I/can play (with the truck). (D)AVP	13) 13 - I AVP AVC^3

CODE NUMBERS FOR NOMINAL STRUCTURES

Note: Underlining indicates the headword (within a T-unit) that is modified at level of complexity indicated.

		EXAMPLES:
Ia.	Single word nominals	I, car, us
	Nominals + the following determiners (a, an, the)	the table, an apple, a dog
	Proper names	Mr. Gomez, Spain
Ib.	Unmodified noun adjuncts (with or without the above determiners).	apple pie army suit the fire engine
IIa.	Ia or Ib plus one adjective modifier	that man the old lady good apple pie one hundred girls
	Note: All numbers count as one modifier. When a modifier is repeated, such as the pretty pretty girl, put an exponent after the code number, the exponent indicates the number of times the word has been repeated. (IIa^2 for pretty pretty girl.)	
IIb.	Ia or Ib plus one adjective modifier + intensifier(s).	the very pretty girl the real pretty girl the very very pretty girl (IIb^2)
IIc.	Ia or Ib plus simple prepositional phrase modifier with Ia or Ib as object of preposition.	some of the boys some of them the man in the car some of the apple pie the apple pie in the house the boy in there
IIIa.	Ia or Ib plus adjective modifier formed by adding suffix to noun.	leaden expression wooden floor.

IIIb.	Nouns, noun adjuncts or pronouns inflected as possessives	Joe's brother my book apple pie's taste
IIIc.	IIc plus one modifier inside or outside of phrase (with or without intensifiers)	the boy with the new book the new boy with the book the very new boy with the book
	Note: The second prepositional phrase is considered one modifier.	the boy in the car in the garage
IIId.	Ia or Ib plus comparative or superlative forms of adjective modifiers	a colder drink the happiest day
IVa.	Ia or Ib plus present participle used as an adjective modifier	the singing birds a steaming apple pie
IVb.	Ia or Ib plus multiple adjective modifiers (with or without intensifiers)	the two little boys the two very little boys
IVc.	IIc plus two or more modifiers within and/or outside phrase	the boy with the big red wagon the big boy with the red wagon the new big boy with the red wagon the new big boy with the wagon
IVd.	Ia or Ib modified by simple infinitive phrase	books to read apple pie to eat the book to give
IVe.	Ia or Ib plus an appositive	Mr. Gomez, the teacher
IVf.	Ia or Ib plus a compound adjective modifier	the big and little children the old and new cars the new and great ideas

IVg.	Ia or Ib plus prepositional phrase with unmodified compound object.	the boy with bat and ball was fat the dinner for husband and wife was ready
Va.	Ia or Ib plus present participle as in type IVa, but with participle following nominal	the bird singing is a dove that woman sewing is my mother
Vb.	Ia or Ib modified by a participial phrase	the man leading the dog
Vc.	Ia or Ib modified by a past participle	the boiled eggs the burnt toast the woven cloth
Vd.	Ia or Ib modified by infinitive phrases more complex than phrases classified as IVd	book to be read books to read slowly clothes to wash and dry
Ve.	IVe plus one or more modifiers	Mr. Gomez, the very good teacher
Vf.	IVg plus one or more modifiers within and/or outside phrase	the little girl with the hat and scarf the small dark girl with the hat and scarf
VI.	Ia or Ib plus adjective clause(s) as modifiers	the pretty girl [that goes to my school]

INSTRUCTIONS FOR CODING NOMINAL STRUCTURES

1. The right-hand margin should be divided into three columns.

2. Identify nominals and adjectives in T-units only. Underline (in blue) each of these words and accompanying determiners, if any. The numbering of nominals should also be in blue starting with 1 and continuing consecutively throughout the samples.

3. a. Classify each nominal according to its level of complexity, using the codes on the code sheet for nominals. Put the code number in the first column after the appropriate identification number.

   Note: Since code Ia is the most commonly used, substitute a check for it.

   EXAMPLES:

   1)✓ 2)✓ 3)✓4)✓ 5)✓
   When I first see dis on TV I like it.

   6)✓
   Since I was going anyway, the little

   7)IIa 8)✓
   girl went with me.

   1)✓
   2)✓
   3)✓
   4)✓
   5)✓
   6)✓
   7)IIa
   8)✓

   Note: The red parentheses will be around T-units (from first-level analysis).

   b. When the nominals are independent, the identification numbers are placed one under the other (as seen in examples 1-8). When a modifying phrase or clause contains nominals, these are analyzed in the same way; but the code numbers, with their headword numbers, are placed in the second column (or a third column when necessary).

   EXAMPLES:

   9)IVc 10)IVb 11)✓
   The boy (with the big red wagon)is Timmy

   12)IIIc 13)IIc 14)✓
   The man ((in the car (in the garage))is
   15)✓
   Mr. Jones.

   16) IIc 17)✓
   Some (of the boys) are going too.

9) IVc	10)IVb	
11) ✓		
12)IIIc	13)IIc	14)✓
15) ✓		
16)IIc	17)✓	

Note: For purposes of classification, when there are two prepositional phrases in a nominal structure, such as "The man in the car in the garage", the second prepositional phrase is counted as one modifier. Thus, nominal structure (12) is classified as IIIc. However, nominal structure (18) would be classified as IVc.

EXAMPLE:

18) IVc 19) IIc 20) ✓
The nice man ((in the car(in the garage))
21) ✓
is Mr. Jones.

	19)	20)
18) IVc	IIc	✓
21) ✓		

4. Rules for underlining and parentheses:

a. The head word and its determiner (if any), is underlined in blue. There should be a number for every underlined-in-blue headword or unmodified nominal. (Noun adjuncts are treated as single-word nominals.)

b. Modifiers of that head are underlined in green[indicated by broken underlining in this report.]

c. Phrases which modify that headword are enclosed in green parentheses.

d. Appositives:

If there is an appositive, underline both the headword and the appositive in blue. Since each is a nominal, and is underlined in blue, each will also have an identification number. The headword will be classified as IVe or Ve depending on the complexity of its appositive; the second nominal will be analyzed in column two.

EXAMPLES:

1) IVe 2) ✓
Mr. Jones, the teacher, is nice.

	2)
1) IVe	✓

3) Ve 4) IIb
Mr. Jones, the very good teacher, is nice.

	4)
3) Ve	IIb

5) Vc
Old Mr. Jones, the long forgotten
6) Vc
teacher, is nice.

	6)
5) Ve	Vc

e. Adjective clauses:

The clause should be enclosed in green brackets. (Nominals within the clauses are underlined in the previously described manner.)

EXAMPLE:

1)VI 2)IIIb
The man [that is singing] is my teacher. 1) VI
2) IIIb

All adjective clauses are classified as VI; but if the headword of the clause is of a higher complexity than Ia or Ib, then its level of complexity is used as a subscript of the VI. The nominals within the clause are coded in the second column.

EXAMPLE:

1)VI 2)✓
The girl [that goes (to school)] is nice. 1) VI 2) ✓

3)VI IIa 4)IIIb
The pretty girl[that goes (to my school)] 3) $\mathrm{VI}_{\mathrm{IIa}}$
5)IIIb
is my friend. 4) IIIb

5) IIIb

5. When coding of the nominals has been completed, put your initials at the upper-right-hand corner of the grid on the cover sheet.

VARIATIONS FROM STANDARD ENGLISH

VERB VARIATIONS

1A. Lack of agreement of subject and verb, third persons singular (excluding all forms of the verb "to be").
Example: He go.

1B. Lack of agreement of subject and verb for all forms except the third person singular (again excluding all forms of the verb "to be").
Example: They wants.

1C. Lack of agreement of subject and verb while using forms of the verb "to be".
Example: There are a big book here.

1D. Inconsistency in the use of tense.
Example: He goes and did it.

1E. Omission of auxiliary verb.
Example: (Do) you want it?

1F. Nonstandard use of verb forms.
Example: I got (have) a pencil, now, teacher.

1G. Omission of the verb "to be".
Example: He going fast.

PRONOUN VARIATIONS

2A. Nonstandard or confusing use of pronoun.
Example: My sister, he wants one.

2B. Use of "that" instead of "who" as a relative pronoun referring to persons.
Example: I saw the man that I knew.

2C. Omitted pronouns.
Example: Is a pencil?

SYNTACTIC CONFUSION

3A. Ambiguous placement of a word, phrase, or clause.
Example: I only saw one boy.

3B. Awkward arrangement or incoherence.
Example: A couple of weeks school is out.

4A. Omission (except of auxiliary verbs).
Example: A little man is blowing (a) horn.

4B. Unnecessary repetition.
Example: And he told me to take it very often he said.

OTHER VARIATIONS

5A. Nonstandard connection (prepositions).
Example: We drove to (from) Utah to Texas.

5B. Nonstandard connection (conjunctions).
Example: He went in the room when (where) she was.

6A. Nonstandard modification (adjectival).
Example: He saw a airplane.

6B. Nonstandard modification (adverbial).
Example: I guess he arrived quick.

7. Nonstandard noun forms.
Example: I see two mans.

8. Double negatives and nonstandard use of possessives.
Example: I don't know nothing.

9. Mixture of Spanish and English.
Example: She is my tia (aunt).

Note: With the exception of type 2c, the classification of variations is taken from: Walter Loban, *Language Ability, Grades Seven, Eight, and Nine*, pp. 63-64.

PARENT OPINION OF PARTICIPATION IN THE SPECIAL PROJECT

DEAR PARENTS:
We were pleased that you participated in this special project at Malabar Street School. We would like to know your opinion of the project. Please be kind enough to answer the following questions. It is not necessary to sign your name.

A.	Of outstanding Advantage	Of Good Advantage	Of Fair Advantage	Of Poor Advantage	Of No Advantage
How do you feel about the program in general?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
How did the project help our children?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
How did the project help your child?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
For you as a parent was the project worthwhile?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Did the project help you to better understand your child?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Did the project help your child at home?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Of how much advantage was your participation in the project?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

B. Of the many contributions you made to the project, which one do you feel helped the project more?

____

____

C. Which of the following contributions did you make to the project? (please check) I helped the children by:

_____ Reading with them.

_____ Helping them write their names or numbers.

_____ Teaching them the names of colors.

_____ Teaching them the use of scissors.

_____ Initiating conversation with them.

_____ Participating in games with them.

_____ Taking them to the rest room.

_____ Correcting their behavior.

_____ Correcting their work.

_____ Helping them count.

_____ Preparing materials for their work.

_____ Contributing ideas and recommending other activities.

_____ Contributing materials of instruction.

_____ Constructing materials for instruction.

LA OPINION DEL PADRE PARTICIPANTE EN EL PROYECTO ESPECIAL

QUERIDOS PADRES:

Nos complace el saber que Ud. tuvo la amabilidad de participar en este proyecto especial. Deseamos saber la opinion de Ud. en cuanto a este proyecto. Háganos el favor de contestar las preguntas que siguen. No es necesario firmar.

A.	De Sumo Provecho	De Mucho Provecho	De Mediano Provecho	De Poco Provecho	No Tuvo Provecho
¿Como vé Ud. el programa en general?	______	______	______	______	______
¿Para los niños, el proyecto sirvió?	______	______	______	______	______
¿Para el hijo de Ud., el proyecto sirvió?	______	______	______	______	______
¿Para Ud., como padre, el proyecto sirvió?	______	______	______	______	______
¿Para que Ud. comprenda mejor a su niño, el proyecto sirvió?	______	______	______	______	______
¿Para facilitar que Ud. ayude al niño en la casa le sirvió?	______	______	______	______	______
¿De que tanto provecho fue la participacion de Ud. al proyecto?	______	______	______	______	______

B. ¿Cuales contribuciónes de Ud. sirvieron mas al proyecto?

____

____

C. Especificamente, cuales fueron las contribuciones de Ud.? (favor de indicar). Ayude a los niños:

____Leyendo con ellos

____Escribir sus nombres

____Reconocer los colores.

____Usar las tijeras.

____Iníciando conversación con ellos.

____Participando en los juegos con ellos.

____Acompañandolos al excusado.

____Corregiendo su conducta.

____Corregiendo su trabajo.

____Preparando materiales para el trabajo.

____Contribuyendo ideas y recomendaciones para actividades.

____Contribuyendo materias de instruccion.

____Construyendo materias de instrucción.

1. The thing(s) that impressed me during this observation:

2. It seemed significant because:

3. I have a question about:

4. Comments:

5. Activities observed:

TIME FROM ______________ TO__________________

GRADE ______________________________________

ROOM ____

NUMBER OF PARENTS _________ PUPIL ________

OBSERVER ___________________________________

TEACHER FUNCTION	PATTERN			INDIVIDUAL		TEACHER MODE				
	Total Group	Small Group	Individual	Pupil	Parent	Fernald	Self-Instruction	Phonic Instruction	Word Discrimination	Oral Language (Pre-school, Kindergarten)
I. INITIATES ACTIVITIES A. Verbal										
1. Tells what to do										
2. Asks to do										
3. Makes suggestion, ("Would you like..?" "What will you do next?"										
B. Non-Verbal (points, beckons, signals)										
II. RESPONDS TO REQUEST, QUESTION, OR STATEMENT										
III. EXPANDS OTHER'S IDEAS, QUESTION, CONVERSATION EXTENSION										
IV. EXPLAINS, SHOWS HOW										
V. SUPPORTS ACADEMIC PROGRESS AND GIVES INDIVIDUAL ENCOURAGEMENT										
A. Verbal										
B. Non-Verbal										
VI. CORRECTS LEARNING BEHAVIOR										
1. States error										
2. Shows how to correct										
3. Explains what to do										
4. Explains why										
5. Asks what should be done										
6. Directs pupil to find own error and correct										
7. Suggests behavior by calling attention to desired behavior.										
8. Directs to do a simpler, lower-level supportive task needed to correct learning behavior										

PARENT FUNCTION

	PATTERN			WITH			TEACHER MODE				
	Total Group	Small Group	Individual	Pupil	Teacher	Parent	Fernald	Self-Instruction	Phonic Instruction	Word Discrimination	Oral Language Pre-School Kindergarten
I. INITIATES ACTIVITES A. Verbal											
1. Tells what to do											
2. Asks to do											
3. Asks what shall I (we) co, makes suggestion (let me read to you)											
B. Non-Verbal											
1. States own activity											
2. Starts other's activity											
II. RESPONDS TO REQUEST, QUESTION, STATEMENT											
III. EXPANDS OTHER'S IDEA, QUESTIONS, CONVERSATION EXTEN., SUPPLYING NEEDED WORD ETC.											
IV. EXPLAINS: SHOWS HOW											
V. SUPPORTS AND GIVES ENCOURAGEMENT											
1. Verbal											
2. Non-verbal											
VI. CORRECTS LEARNING BAHAVIOR											
1. States error											
2. Shows how to correct											
3. Explains what to do											
4. Explains why											
5. Asks what should be done											
6. Directs pupil to find											
7. Suggests behavior by calling attention to desirable behavior											
8. Directs to do a simpler lower-level, supportive task needed to correct learning behavior											
VII. SHARES ACTIVITIES, TAKING TURNS DOING THING WITH CHILDREN											

PUPIL FUNCTION

	PATTERN			WITH			TEACHER MODE						
	Total Group	Small Group	Individual	Pupil	Teacher	Parent	Fernald	Self-Instruction	Phonic Instruction	Word Discrimination	Oral Language	Pre-School	Kindergarten
I. INITIATES ACTIVITIES													
A. Verbal													
1.Tells what to do													
2.Asks someone to do													
3.Asks "what shall I do?"													
B. Non-Verbal													
1.Starts own activity													
2.Points, beckons, signals													
3.Goes to others and joins activity													
4.Shows what he is doing													
5.Works steadily at selected job													
6.Moves from one activity to an extension and supportive activity (e.g. uses table of contents voluntarily													
II. RESPONDS TO REQUEST, QUESTION, STATEMENT													
III. EXPANDS OTHER'S IDEA													
IV. EXPLAINS, SHOWS HOW													
V. SUPPORTS PROGRESS AND GIVES ENCOURAGEMENT													
1.Gives encouragement to others													
2.Gives verbal approval													
3.Gives non-verbal approval (nods, smiles, pats)													
VI. CORRECTS OWN BEHAVIOR													
1.Finds error													
2.Asks what to do,what is correct													
3.Corrects error													
4.Responds to detection of error and direction													
VII.CORRECTS ANOTHER'S LEARNING BEHAVIOR													
1.States error													
2.Shows how to correct													
3.Explains what to do													
4.Explains why													
5.Asks what should be done													
6.Directs to find error													
7.Suggests behavior by calling attention to desired behavior													
8.Directs to do a simpler, lower-level supportive task needed to correct learning behavior													

DATE___________________

GRADE__________________

THIS AFTERNOON I FEEL

TODAY THE PUPILS DID

TODAY GENERALLY THE PUPILS WERE

THE INCIDENT(S) THAT STOOD OUT VIVIDLY WAS (WERE)

TYPE-TOKEN LIST

To compute the type-token ratio: List the different words used by each child in three 100-word segments. Tally the number of times each word is used. Divide the number of different words used (types) by the total number of words used (tokens).

a
about
after
all
always
an (adj.)
and
animal
are
at

back
Batman
be
because
big
boat
boy
break
bunny
but
by

call
came
can
car
carrying
cartoon
Casper
clothes
color
come
coming
COULD (CUD)
crying

did
die
different
do
does
dog
done
down
dress

every
everyone

fast
father
Felix
fighting
fight
fire
for
friend
from
funny

gate
get
getting
girl
glass
go
goes
going
gonna
good
got
grass
guy
(GUESS)

had
hair
happen
has
have
he
head
her
her
him
his
hit
home
horse
house

I
IF
in
into
is
it

keep
kill
knight
know
(KINDA)

like
little
look
looking
lot
lotta

men
(MAYBE)
me
(MIGHT)
monster
most
mother
move
moving
my
must
(MAY)

name
next
no
not
nothing
now

of
off
on
one
only
or
other
our
out
over

people
pick
picking
picture
play
popeye
pull
(PERHAPS)
(POSSIBLE)
(POSSIBLY)

rabbit
race
racing
ran
ready
real
Riddler
right
running

said
same
see
she
ship
show
small
so
some
somebody
something
start
started
stop
(SOMEWHAT)

take
then
that
them
than
there
these
they
think
this
time
to
too
took
tree
truck
trying
turn
two
thing

uh-uh (no)
uh-huh (yes)
up
used

want
was
way
we
well
were
what
when
where
who
why
will
with
(WOULD)
(WONDER)

yes
you

Exclamations

ah
uh
um/mmm
yeah

Contractions

can't
COULDN'T
that's
there's
didn't
doesn't
don't
he's
it's
she's
(SORTA)
they'll
(WOULDN'T

LOS ANGELES CITY SCHOOL DISTRICTS
Auxiliary Services Division
Measurement and Evaluation Section
April 26, 1967

TO: Principals of Elementary Schools

FROM: Measurement and Evaluation Section Ext. 426

SUBJECT: SCHOOL TEST RESULTS, JANUARY 1967 A1, A2, AND A3 STATE TESTING PROGRAM FOR READING

In January, 1967 pupils in Grade A1 were tested with the Stanford Reading Test, Primary I, Form W, pupils in Grade A2 were tested with the Stanford Reading Test, Primary II, Form W, and pupils in Grade A3 were tested with the Stanford Reading Test, Primary II, Form X, as required by the legislation commonly referred to as the "Miller-Unruh Basic Reading Act of 1965."

The test results for pupils in the three grades in your school on the fall, 1966-1967 Basic Reading Testing Program are summarized below.

Grade	Area Code	School Number	School	Median Raw Score	National Norm Percentile
A1	1	5082	MALABAR	17.875	3
A2	1	5082	MALABAR	14.250	1
A3	1	5082	MALABAR	29.000	3

Data are shown separately for grades A1, A2 and A3. The median raw score has been calculated so as to determine the midpoint of the distribution for your school. Half of the pupils in this grade in your school had scores above this point and half below.

The national norm percentile is given in the last column for the median raw score for each grade tested in your school. These may be analyzed in terms of relationship to the fiftieth percentile, which may be interpreted as national norm for that grade. A percentile of 50 is at norm or the pupils did as well as those in the national standardization sample. A percentile greater than 50 is above national norm and a percentile smaller than 50 is below the national norm.

JCC:bh

LOS ANGELES CITY SCHOOL DISTRICTS
Auxiliary Services Division
Measurement and Evaluation Section
March 18, 1968

TO: Principals of Elementary Schools

FROM: Measurement and Evaluation Section EXT. 2881

SUBJECT: SCHOOL TEST RESULTS, JANUARY 1968 A1, A2 AND A3
STATE TESTING PROGRAM FOR READING

In January 1968 pupils in Grade A1 were tested with the Stanford Reading Test, Primary I, Form W, pupils in Grade A2 were tested with the Stanford Reading Test, Primary II, Form W, and pupils in Grade A3 were tested with the Stanford Reading Test, Primary II, Form X, as required by the legislation commonly referred to as the "Miller-Unruh Basic Reading Act of 1965."

The test results for pupils in the three grades in your school on the fall 1967-1968 Basic Reading Testing Program are summarized below.

Grade	Area Code	School Number	School	Median Raw Score	National Norm Percentile
A1	1	5082	MALABAR	24.75	08
A2	1	5082	MALABAR	16.16	02
A3	1	5082	MALABAR	36.16	06

Data are shown separately for grades A1, A2, and A3. The median raw score has been calculated so as to determine the midpoint of the distribution for your school. Half of the pupils in this grade in your school had scores above this point and half below.

The national norm percentile is given in the last column for the median raw score for each grade tested in your school. These may be analyzed in terms of relationship to the fiftieth percentile, which may be interpreted as national norm for that grade. A percentile of 50 is at norm or the pupils did as well as those in the national standardization sample. A percentile greater than 50 is above national norm and a percentile smaller than 50 is below the national norm.

JCC:bh

APPENDIX B.

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

TABLE B-1

FIRST-LEVEL ANALYSIS OF ORAL LANGUAGE INTERVIEW INTO T-UNITS, MAZES, AND REPORTAGE RESPONSUMS: STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR GRADES A1, A2, A3; STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR HIGH[a] AND LOW[b] READERS WITHIN EACH GRADE

Variable	Standard Deviations for Grade Levels			Standard Deviations for High and Low readers					
				A1		A2		A3	
	A1	A2	A3	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Number of cases	59	52	60	27	32	28	24	32	28
Number of words in Oral Language Interview classified as:									
Mazes	292.8	60.2	97.7	153.1	371.3	55.6	64.5	32.1	132.2
Reportage responsums	44.3	32.0	32.3	57.5	28.5	25.4	38.2	21.8	40.0
T-units	684.3	227.3	342.2	730.5	641.3	177.4	272.5	114.5	469.7
Total number of words	981.2	299.8	455.0	932.5	1020.2	231.3	361.7	147.7	622.7
Per cent of words in Oral Language Interview classified as:									
Mazes	9.7	7.7	7.2	8.8	10.2	7.9	7.3	6.6	7.5
Reportage responsums	23.3	12.6	14.1	29.1	15.9	12.8	12.3	14.2	14.0
T-units	19.8	11.8	14.0	23.9	15.0	10.8	12.7	14.2	13.6
Number of T-units	76.6	32.0	44.8	80.8	72.8	24.0	38.9	16.2	61.0
Mean length of:									
All T-units	1.9	1.2	1.0	2.4	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.0	.9
Three longest T-units[c]	4.8	3.9	3.1	5.8	3.8	4.5	3.1	3.2	3.0
Three longest T-units without variations[c]	4.2	2.9	3.0	5.0	3.4	2.4	3.2	3.0	2.9

[a] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the highest third of their grade.

[b] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the lowest third of their grade.

[c] In 300-word sample used in second-level analysis.

TABLE B-2

TYPES OF PREDICATION PATTERNS AND VERBS: STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR GRADES A1, A2, A3; STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR HIGH[a] AND LOW[b] READERS WITHIN EACH GRADE

Variable	Standard Deviations for Grade Levels			Standard Deviations for High and Low readers					
				A1		A2		A3	
	A1	A2	A3	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Number of cases	59	52	60	27	32	28	24	32	28
Predications									
Type I	22.0	13.8	15.2	26.2	17.4	13.3	13.4	15.2	15.1
Type II	7.6	6.6	7.7	8.0	7.3	7.1	5.6	8.7	6.3
Type III	5.5	8.8	4.8	5.0	5.9	11.1	4.7	5.4	4.0
Type IV	23.5	12.8	13.7	27.7	18.8	13.2	12.2	13.6	13.6
Type V	1.3	1.3	2.1	.6	1.6	1.3	1.3	2.3	1.9
Type VI	5.8	5.5	5.7	6.8	4.7	5.7	5.1	5.2	6.2
Verbs									
Present tense	27.0	17.8	18.2	29.3	24.8	15.9	19.9	19.0	17.1
Present progressive	12.8	7.4	7.3	13.7	11.9	7.2	7.4	9.0	4.5
Past tense	13.7	12.9	13.1	13.2	13.9	12.5	13.3	13.5	12.6
Past progressive	5.3	6.2	4.5	1.1	7.0	6.5	5.7	5.4	3.2
Modal auxiliary + base form of verb	14.7	11.6	10.0	12.0	16.4	11.2	11.8	8.8	10.4
Modal auxiliary + infinitive	4.5	3.9	3.8	3.8	5.1	2.8	4.9	3.2	4.3
Variations of present and past progressive	2.7	2.3	2.5	1.4	3.3	1.2	3.0	2.7	2.2
Miscellaneous	1.9	3.5	2.1	1.6	2.1	1.3	4.9	1.3	2.7

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[a] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the highest third of their grade.

[b] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the lowest third of their grade.

TABLE B-3

TYPES OF ADVERBIALS: STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR GRADES A1, A2, A3; STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR HIGH[a] AND LOW[b] READERS WITHIN EACH GRADE

Variable	Standard Deviations for Grade Levels			Standard Deviations for High and Low readers					
				A1		A2		A3	
	A1	A2	A3	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Number of cases	59	52	60	27	32	28	24	32	28
Number of verbs	14.84	10.91	11.74	16.33	13.40	9.87	11.92	11.91	11.56
Number of verbs modified	9.64	6.80	7.48	10.76	8.54	6.39	7.18	6.78	8.18
Types of adverbials									
Number of intensifiers	1.00	1.25	1.22	1.29	.64	1.36	1.11	1.21	1.23
Number of adverbs	9.22	6.93	7.47	10.04	8.43	5.80	8.05	7.40	7.51
Number of adverb phrases	4.26	3.52	4.13	4.86	3.66	3.80	3.11	4.02	4.11
Number of adverb clauses	2.18	1.98	2.11	2.61	1.56	2.06	1.88	2.06	2.17
Total number of adverbials	14.42	10.51	11.11	16.51	12.23	8.93	12.03	10.48	11.77
Ratios									
Ratio of intensifiers/verbs	.02	.04	.04	.03	.02	.04	.03	.04	.04
Ratio of adverbs/verbs	.22	.16	.16	.24	.20	.15	.18	.19	.12
Ratio of adverb phrases/verbs	.17	.09	.14	.21	.13	.10	.09	.14	.13
Ratio of adverb clauses/verbs	.08	.06	.06	.07	.08	.07	.06	.06	.05
Ratio of adverbials/verbs modified	.42	.26	.23	.49	.33	.27	.24	.25	.17

[a] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the highest third of their grade.

[b] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the lowest third of their grade.

TABLE B-4

TYPES OF NOMINALS USED: STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR GRADES A1, A2, A3;
STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR HIGH[a] AND LOW[b] READERS WITHIN EACH GRADE

Variable	Standard Deviations for Grade Levels			Standard Deviations for High and Low readers					
				A1		A2		A3	
	A1	A2	A3	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Number of cases	59	52	60	27	32	28	24	32	28
Number of nominals of:									
Type Ia (single-word nominals, nouns + determiners, proper names)	21.1	16.3	16.4	22.9	19.5	14.8	17.9	15.8	17.0
Type Ib (unmodified noun adjuncts)	1.3	.9	1.0	1.3	1.3	1.1	.6	1.2	.6
Type IIa (one adjective modifier + Ia or Ib)	2.6	2.8	2.8	2.2	2.9	2.8	2.4	2.9	2.6
Type IIc (simple phrase modifier)	.7	1.0	1.3	.7	.7	1.1	.7	1.3	1.4
Type IIIb (nouns, noun adjuncts or pronouns inflected as possessives)	2.2	1.9	1.9	1.8	2.5	1.8	1.9	2.2	1.6
All other types	2.0	1.9	2.4	2.1	1.9	2.0	1.8	2.5	2.2
Total number of nominals	26.3	19.5	19.7	27.9	24.7	18.2	20.6	20.2	19.3
Per cent of unmodified nominals (Ia and Ib)	20.8	7.5	8.4	27.8	10.1	6.4	7.4	7.9	8.9

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[a] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the highest third of their grade.

[b] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the lowest third of their grade.

TABLE B-5

MEASURES OF SUBORDINATION: STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR GRADES A1, A2, A3; STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR HIGH[a] AND LOW[b] READERS WITHIN EACH GRADE

Variable	Standard Deviations for Grade Levels			Standard Deviations for High and Low readers					
				A1		A2		A3	
	A1	A2	A3	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Number of cases	59	52	60	27	32	28	24	32	28
Number of:									
Adverb clauses	2.18	1.98	2.11	2.61	1.56	2.06	1.88	2.06	2.17
Adjective clauses	.67	.46	1.42	.80	.53	.54	.33	1.75	.67
Noun clauses	1.36	1.39	1.87	1.61	1.08	1.50	1.24	1.78	1.95
Main and subordinate clauses	14.48	10.43	11.32	16.00	12.99	9.14	11.62	11.38	11.25
T-units	12.07	8.69	8.99	12.60	11.54	7.81	9.50	9.46	8.42
T-unit words	82.06	60.28	61.36	87.57	76.85	53.61	66.62	61.62	61.06
Verbals	1.56	2.05	2.09	1.54	1.58	1.86	2.19	1.70	2.40
Ratios									
Number of clauses per T-unit	.27	.12	.14	.38	.10	.12	.11	.14	.12
Average length of clause	1.36	.78	.71	1.71	.86	.80	.75	.63	.79

[a] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the highest third of their grade.

[b] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the lowest third of their grade.

TABLE B-6

MEASURES OF VARIETY: STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR GRADES A1, A2, A3; STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR HIGH[a] AND LOW[b] READERS WITHIN EACH GRADE

Variable	Standard Deviations for Grade Levels			Standard Deviations for High and Low readers					
				A1		A2		A3	
	A1	A2	A3	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Number of cases	59	52	60	27	32	28	24	32	28
Number of:									
Predication x verb types used	4.03	2.84	3.31	4.63	3.39	2.59	3.10	3.25	3.37
Adverbial type x position combination used	2.32	1.64	1.39	2.73	1.90	1.59	1.66	1.43	1.29
Nominal types used	2.21	2.05	1.93	2.40	2.03	2.07	1.96	2.02	1.61
Nominals of infrequently used types	2.01	1.92	2.43	2.08	1.95	2.02	1.75	2.52	2.16
Different adjectives used	3.93	3.53	3.68	4.23	3.66	3.15	3.54	3.93	3.35
Types of compounds used	.36	.62	.62	.38	.33	.61	.64	.66	.56
Types of verbals used	1.13	1.24	1.23	.98	1.24	1.10	1.33	1.06	1.39
Number of different uncommon:									
Prepositions used	1.45	1.18	1.62	1.68	1.19	1.18	1.07	1.81	1.28
Adverbs used	3.47	2.93	3.12	3.87	3.09	2.27	3.55	3.08	3.15
Intensifiers used	.32	.56	.57	.26	.36	.65	.43	.61	.52
Number of expressions indicating tentativeness	.92	.77	.82	.90	.92	.70	.81	.94	.63
Type-token analysis									
Number of different words used	46.28	28.42	30.04	50.47	42.24	24.61	32.18	32.71	26.36
Number of tokens	107.97	74.93	66.94	111.62	104.57	65.10	84.19	74.30	57.35
Type-token ratio	.16	.09	.10	.15	.16	.07	.10	.12	.07
Number of words added to type-token list	17.95	14.09	14.71	18.99	17.25	13.94	14.23	16.63	11.92

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[a] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the highest third of their grade.

[b] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the lowest third of their grade.

TABLE B-7

VARIATIONS FROM STANDARD ENGLISH--FREQUENCY IN 300-WORD SAMPLE: COMPARISON OF GRADE LEVEL MEANS AND COMPARISON OF MEANS FOR HIGH[a] READERS AND LOW[b] READERS IN GRADES A1, A2, A3

Variable	Comparison of Means by Grade			Comparison of Means for High and Low readers					
				A1		A2		A3	
	A1	A2	A3	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Number of cases	59	52	60	27	32	28	24	32	28
Verb variations									
Lack of agreement of subject and verb									
Forms of verb "to be"	.08	.13	.13	.11	.06	.14	.12	.19	.07
Other verbs									
3rd person singular	2.11	1.94	1.69	2.11	2.10	1.57	2.36	1.25	2.18
Other forms	.03	.02	.12	.04	.03	.04	.00	.16	.07
Inconsistency in use of tense	.22	.09	.36	.26	.19	.07	.12	.34	.39
Omission of auxiliary verbs	.07	.19	.10	.04	.10	.04	.36	.06	.14
Nonstandard use of verb forms	1.07	.92	1.11	.96	1.16	.64	1.24	1.16	1.04
Omission of the verb "to be"	.26	.45	.28	.41	.13	.43	.48	.34	.21
Total number of verb variations	3.84	3.74	3.79	3.93	3.77	2.93	4.68	3.50	4.10
Pronoun variations									
Nonstandard or confusing use of pronouns	.50	.40	.57	.52	.48	.36	.44	.69	.43
Omission of pronouns	.03	.15	.05	.07	.00	.11	.20	.06	.04
Syntactic confusion									
Ambiguous placement of a word, phrase or clause	.09	.07	.02	.00	.16	.07	.08	.03	.00
Awkward arrangement or incoherence	.68	.60	.76	.67	.68	.43	.80	.81	.71
Omission (except of auxiliary verbs or pronouns)	.43	.70	.69	.30	.55	.82	.56	.84	.54
Unnecessary repetition	.29	.34	.52	.26	.32	.32	.36	.41	.64

TABLE B-7 --Continued

Variable	Comparison of Means by Grade			Comparison of Means for High and Low readers					
				A1		A2		A3	
	A1	A2	A3	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Number of cases	59	52	60	27	32	28	24	32	28
Other variations									
Nonstandard connectives									
Prepositions	.21	.24	.32	.19	.23	.14	.36	.34	.29
Conjunctions	.03	.07	.12	.00	.06	.07	.08	.06	.18
Nonstandard modification									
Adjectival	.19	.34	.25	.26	.13	.25	.44	.19	.32
Adverbial	.14	.50	.42	.11	.16	.28	.76	.47	.36
Nonstandard noun forms	.24	.26	.33	.37	.13	.21	.32	.28	.39
Double negatives and nonstandard use of possessives	.21	.21	.23	.22	.19	.11	.32	.09	.39
Total number of variations	6.88	7.69	8.07	6.90	6.86	6.11	9.40	7.77	8.39
Number of T-unit words	114.2	157.2	175.4	111.8	116.3	162.9	150.6	176.3	174.4

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[a] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the highest third of their grade.

[b] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the lowest third of their grade.

TABLE B-8

VARIATIONS FROM STANDARD ENGLISH: STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR GRADES A1, A2, A3; STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR HIGH[a] AND LOW[b] READERS WITHIN EACH GRADE

Variable	Standard Deviations for Grade Levels			Standard Deviations for High and Low readers					
				A1		A2		A3	
	A1	A2	A3	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Number of cases	59	52	60	27	32	28	24	32	28
Verb variations									
Lack of agreement of subject and verb									
Forms of verb "to be"	.34	.44	.34	.42	.18	.44	.35	.39	.26
Other verbs									
3rd person singular	2.13	1.96	2.21	2.87	3.01	2.28	2.02	1.32	2.39
Other forms	.34	.14	.39	.19	.35	.19	.00	.38	.31
Inconsistency in use of tense	.64	.35	.87	.64	.63	.35	.35	.78	.94
Omission of auxiliary verbs	.34	.55	.36	.19	.38	.19	.75	.35	.37
Nonstandard use of verb forms	1.51	1.72	1.60	1.35	1.54	1.23	2.07	1.82	1.26
Omission of the verb "to be"	.64	.94	.61	.87	.14	.86	1.08	.72	.41
Pronoun variations									
Nonstandard or confusing use of pronouns	2.47	.71	.85	1.66	1.00	.72	.71	.98	.62
Omission of pronouns	.37	.41	.13	.27	.38	.31	.50	.35	.19
Syntactic confusion									
Ambiguous placement of a word, phrase or clause	.44	.33	.29	.00	.57	.26	.28	.18	.00
Awkward arrangement or incoherence	1.09	.98	1.05	1.23	1.11	.86	1.11	1.10	.96
Omission (except of auxiliary verbs or pronouns)	.95	1.19	1.10	.66	1.00	1.40	1.03	1.28	.79
Unnecessary repetition	.59	.58	.81	.58	.59	.60	.56	.55	1.00

TABLE B-8 --Continued

Variable	Standard Deviations for Grade Levels			Standard Deviations for High and Low readers					
				A1		A2		A3	
	A1	A2	A3	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Number of cases	59	52	60	27	32	28	24	32	28
Other variations									
Nonstandard connectives									
Prepositions	.66	.67	.75	.47	.78	.58	.75	.69	.80
Conjunctions	.26	.26	.48	.00	.35	.26	.28	.35	.54
Nonstandard modification									
Adjectival	.47	.85	.51	.58	.35	.69	1.00	.39	1.03
Adverbial	.34	1.14	.93	.33	.36	1.14	1.30	1.00	.67
Nonstandard noun forms	.77	.62	.60	1.25	.29	.49	.75	.51	.67
Double negatives and nonstandard use of possessives	.52	.56	.50	.94	.58	.31	.75	.29	.62
Total number of variations	5.82	6.69	5.33	6.45	5.13	5.92	7.09	5.18	5.13

[a] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the highest third of their grade.

[b] Mexican-American pupils whose corrected raw scores on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I, placed them in the lowest third of their grade.

NUMERICAL CODE FOR VARIABLES IN CORRELATION MATRICES

1. Number of verb variations
2. Percentage of structural patterns of Type II (subject + linking verb + predicate adjective)
3. Percentage of structural patterns of Type III (subject + linking verb + predicate nominative)
4. Percentage of structural patterns of Type V (subject + transitive verb + indirect object + direct object)
5. Total number of variations
6. Number of adverbials
7. Number of verbs
8. Ratio of adverbs/verbs modified
9. Number of adverbs
10. Number of adverb phrases
11. Predication patterns x verb types
12. Number of nominal types used
13. Number of different adjectives used
14. Number of adverbial types x position combinations used
15. Type-token ratio
16. Number of clauses per T-unit
17. Mean length of clause
18. Number of adverbial clauses
19. Number of adjective clauses
20. Number of noun clauses
21. Number of infrequently used nominals
22. Per cent of unmodified nouns and pronouns
23. Mean length of T-unit
24. Per cent of words in mazes
25. Per cent of words in reportage responsums
26. Per cent of words in T-units
27. Mean length of three longest T-units
28. Mean length of three longest T-units without variations
29. Number of words added to type-token list
30. Number of expressions of tentativeness
31. Number of verbals
32. Corrected raw score on Total Reading, Stanford Primary I

TABLE B - 9

CORRELATION MATRIX FOR 31 ORAL LANGUAGE MEASURES - PRESCHOOL CHILDREN [a]

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31
1																															
2	-.07																														
3	.07	-.06																													
4	-.06	.02	-.13																												
5	.65	-.07	.06	-.14																											
6	.17	-.22	-.10	.08	.27																										
7	.37	-.20	.04	.01	.52	.66																									
8	.17	-.14	-.10	.24	.23	.44	.36																								
9	.09	-.18	-.06	.03	.14	.79	.56	.19																							
10	.12	-.16	-.13	.08	.17	.64	.39	.45	.13																						
11	.38	-.04	.04	.17	.52	.52	.79	.31	.42	.28																					
12	.05	-.08	-.02	.18	.35	.34	.46	.06	.25	.20	.42																				
13	-.02	-.10	-.02	.14	.22	.31	.43	.06	.24	.20	.41	.82																			
14	.10	-.13	.01	-.03	.26	.63	.51	.25	.46	.41	.53	.36	.35																		
15	-.15	.00	.09	-.04	.00	-.15	-.11	-.17	-.16	-.11	.21	.01	.09	.07																	
16	.17	.16	.03	.07	.31	.41	.49	.29	.36	.22	.50	.38	.29	.39	-.03																
17	-.02	.15	-.04	.14	.21	.43	.30	.23	.34	.31	.34	.47	.40	.34	.00	.71															
18	.03	.00	.01	-.01	.11	.31	.19	.15	.08	.09	.30	.09	.03	.51	.15	.20	.05														
19	.02	.00	.05	-.03	.06	.18	.16	.03	.02	.15	.15	.17	.04	.20	.05	.23	.09	.54													
20	.09	.20	.01	-.17	.18	.11	.21	.05	.12	.04	.23	.00	-.12	.09	.13	.24	.06	.11	.09												
21	-.12	.10	-.05	.10	.11	.13	.23	.04	.15	-.03	.21	.54	.35	.21	.07	.21	.24	.15	.18	.31											
22	.26	.15	.15	-.06	.25	.20	.25	.28	.18	.12	.36	-.08	-.13	.17	.07	.44	.36	.06	.02	.18	.02										
23	-.11	-.08	-.07	.12	.12	.16	.03	.02	.09	.14	.04	.27	.20	.24	-.03	.18	.43	.09	.16	.03	.17	.05									
24	-.02	.19	.01	-.06	-.24	-.38	-.51	-.19	-.19	-.34	-.42	-.41	-.43	-.41	-.12	-.18	-.25	-.22	-.19	-.08	-.34	-.16	-.24								
25	-.09	.31	.09	.08	-.22	-.28	-.37	-.13	-.29	-.15	-.20	-.27	-.17	-.14	.07	-.16	-.16	-.02	-.13	-.09	-.06	.14	-.20	-.03							
26	.07	-.35	-.07	.00	.33	.48	.64	.23	.33	.36	.45	.50	.46	.41	.05	.24	.30	.19	.23	.12	.31	.03	.32	-.76	-.63						
27	.18	-.11	-.03	.12	.43	.54	.61	.28	.41	.34	.61	.60	.47	.47	.03	.57	.63	.23	.26	.09	.26	.29	.24	-.43	-.26	.50					
28	.08	-.16	-.06	.08	.25	.58	.66	.30	.49	.36	.59	.56	.46	.46	.02	.53	.54	.19	.24	.17	.37	.29	.07	-.47	-.27	.54	.84				
29	.15	.15	-.04	.09	.30	.31	.49	.08	.29	.09	.60	.23	.30	.35	.21	.25	.18	.21	.10	.25	.10	.13	.05	-.15	-.02	.13	.37	.34			
30	.02	-.06	-.04	.06	.17	.25	.11	.12	.18	.09	.20	.18	.23	.17	.05	.08	.20	.19	-.04	.08	.12	.04	.14	-.17	.01	.12	.20	.06	.05		
31	.07	-.12	-.15	.01	-.04	.13	.03	-.03	.20	.00	.01	-.07	.00	-.09	-.13	-.02	.11	-.05	-.06	-.11	-.08	.09	.03	-.02	-.14	.11	-.13	-.08	-.06	.12	

[a] **Numerical Code for oral language measures is given on page B-11. Correlation coefficients above .19 are significant at the .05 level; those above .24 are significant at the .01 level.**

TABLE B - 10

CORRELATION MATRIX FOR READING SCORE AND 31 ORAL LANGUAGE MEASURES FOR 50 MEXICAN-AMERICAN CHILDREN IN GRADES A1, A2, and A3 *

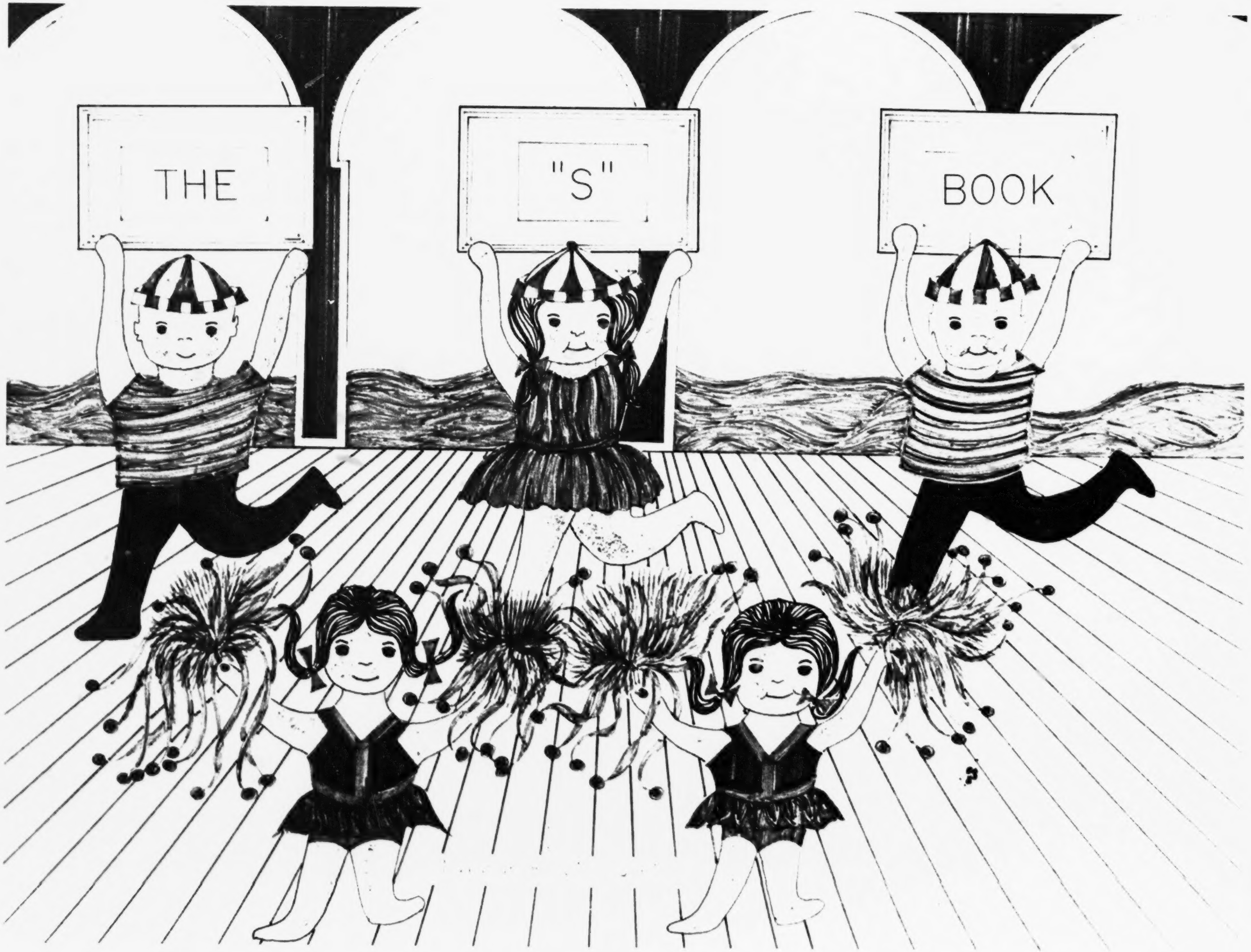
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
1																																
2	-.16																															
3	.08	-.07																														
4	.14	-.05	.22																													
5	.79	-.14	.01	.20																												
6	.30	-.22	-.20	.10	.29																											
7	-.07	.23	.08	-.04	.00	.27																										
8	.17	-.07	-.09	.00	.18	.61	-.07																									
9	.16	-.01	-.22	.03	.22	.79	.32	.47																								
10	.21	-.21	-.04	.05	.04	.25	-.17	.05	-.25																							
11	.12	.00	.02	.31	.18	.13	.18	-.04	.14	-.17																						
12	-.04	-.15	.20	-.05	-.15	-.29	-.22	-.08	-.38	-.01	.00																					
13	-.13	-.19	.33	.03	-.17	-.32	-.02	-.19	-.49	.16	-.07	.65																				
14	.11	-.29	.25	.13	.06	.33	.12	.23	.32	-.18	.36	.05	.18																			
15	.00	-.06	.01	-.15	-.03	-.25	-.30	-.01	-.28	-.12	-.10	.41	.25	.05																		
16	-.06	-.20	-.05	-.01	.06	.26	.34	.05	.02	-.02	.38	.26	.31	.35	.24																	
17	.05	-.31	-.03	.19	.00	-.11	-.83	.12	-.18	.18	-.07	.09	.04	.05	.24	-.19																
18	.16	-.21	.07	.17	.21	.33	.13	.14	.00	-.01	.30	.11	.11	.38	.20	.73	-.05															
19	-.02	-.09	.06	-.09	-.10	-.19	-.04	-.19	-.26	.24	-.14	.33	.23	-.02	.03	.10	-.06	-.17														
20	-.10	.00	-.05	-.03	-.03	.26	.57	-.05	.24	-.13	.47	.01	.12	.21	-.03	.68	-.37	.30	-.13													
21	-.15	-.16	.07	-.09	-.12	-.16	-.10	-.14	-.31	.15	.03	.78	.63	.08	.31	.41	.03	.14	.39	.11												
22	.03	.11	-.07	.03	.06	.27	.28	.07	.39	-.22	.12	-.57	-.70	-.03	-.26	-.21	-.18	.01	-.26	-.08	-.60											
23	.15	-.23	-.10	.09	.17	.12	-.37	.20	-.03	-.08	.21	.18	.04	.32	.37	.52	.46	.58	-.10	.26	.13	-.13										
24	.12	-.20	-.07	-.01	.09	.11	-.21	.03	.15	.03	-.14	-.27	-.24	-.05	-.22	-.21	.07	-.01	-.05	-.13	-.25	.10	.10									
25	-.12	.33	.02	-.10	-.11	-.26	.09	-.22	-.17	-.01	.01	.24	.20	-.12	.01	-.13	-.18	-.27	.36	-.08	.34	-.24	-.33	-.39								
26	-.01	-.08	.05	.09	.01	.10	.13	.16	.00	-.02	.12	.06	.05	.15	.20	.29	.07	.21	-.25	.18	-.05	.11	.16	-.64	-.45							
27	.16	-.33	.13	.08	.16	.15	-.26	.17	.00	-.06	.35	.28	.16	.47	.33	.54	.42	.53	.01	.19	.28	-.14	.68	-.04	-.25	.24						
28	-.24	-.13	-.03	-.06	-.26	-.11	-.10	-.01	-.28	.02	.27	.25	.28	.20	.26	.55	.23	.36	.09	.25	.29	-.11	.49	-.17	-.11	.26	.58					
29	.02	.08	.21	.03	.03	-.22	-.14	-.05	-.19	-.17	.04	.38	.26	.06	.63	.18	.16	.19	.15	-.01	.15	-.14	.25	-.15	.08	.08	.26	.23				
30	.01	-.01	-.23	-.06	.00	.35	.22	.07	.15	.13	.15	-.07	-.02	.14	.20	.36	-.03	.40	-.11	.25	.02	.29	.25	-.18	.06	.12	.05	.23	.20			
31	.07	-.12	-.31	.11	.13	-.09	-.01	-.18	-.01	-.16	.00	-.08	-.03	.11	.25	.15	.12	.09	-.14	-.02	-.06	-.05	.17	-.20	-.13	.30	.11	.08	-.03	-.02		
32	-.13	.22	.08	.08	-.24	-.13	.11	.07	-.22	.03	.11	.29	.24	.04	.18	.15	-.11	.08	.35	.04	.30	-.16	-.03	-.32	.52	-.13	-.07	.23	.22	.29	-.13	

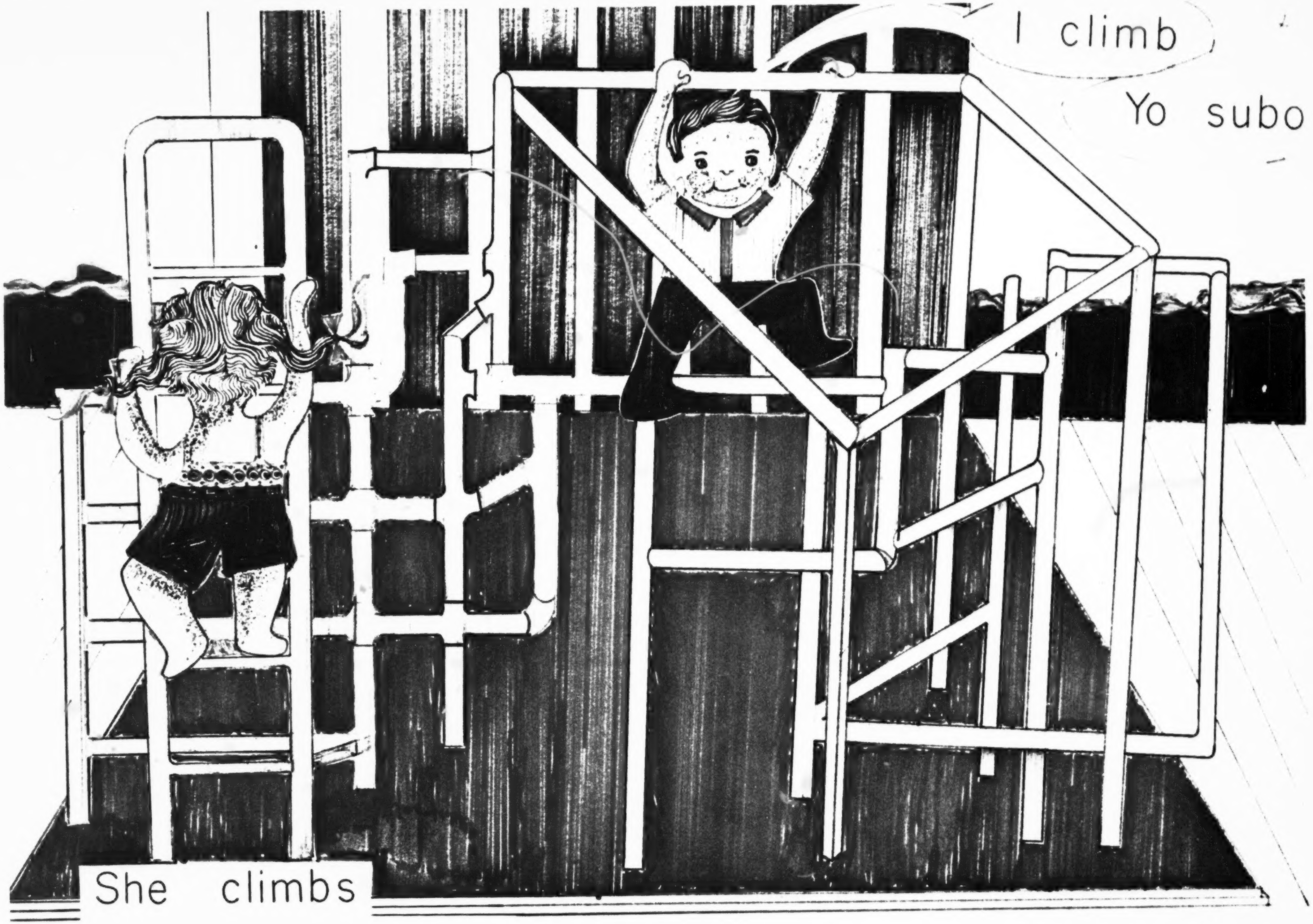
*Since a number of language measures were influenced by sample size (i.e., number of T-unit words used in the second-level analysis), these correlations were computed on the basis of 50 cases who had 180-220 T-unit words available for study. Correlation coefficients above .27 are significant at the .05 level; those above .35 are significant at the .01 level.

APPENDIX C.

FACSIMILE OF ONE OF THE SPANISH-ENGLISH BOOKS DEVELOPED FOR THE PROJECT

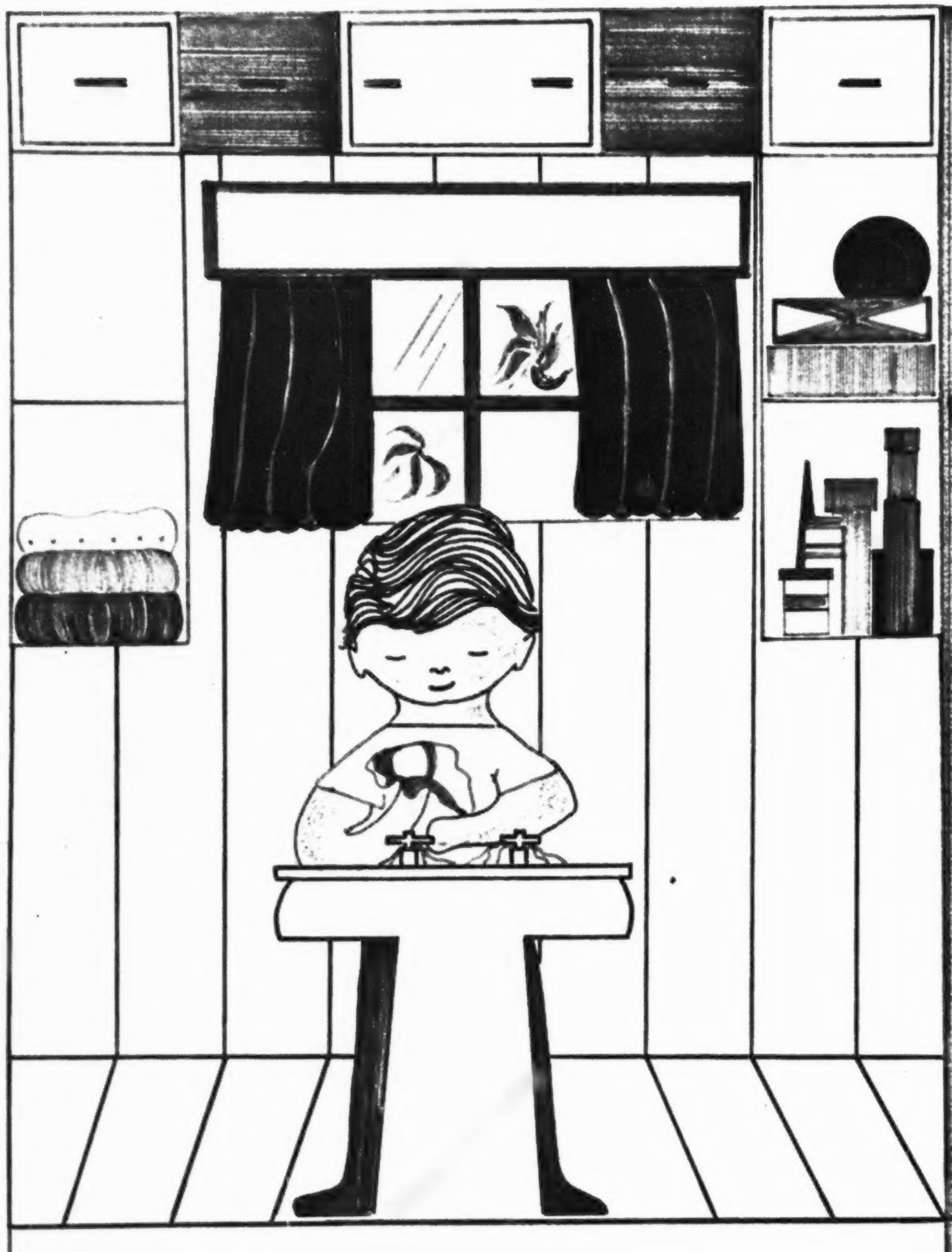
THE "S" BOOK


THE
"S"
BOOK


I climb
Yo subo

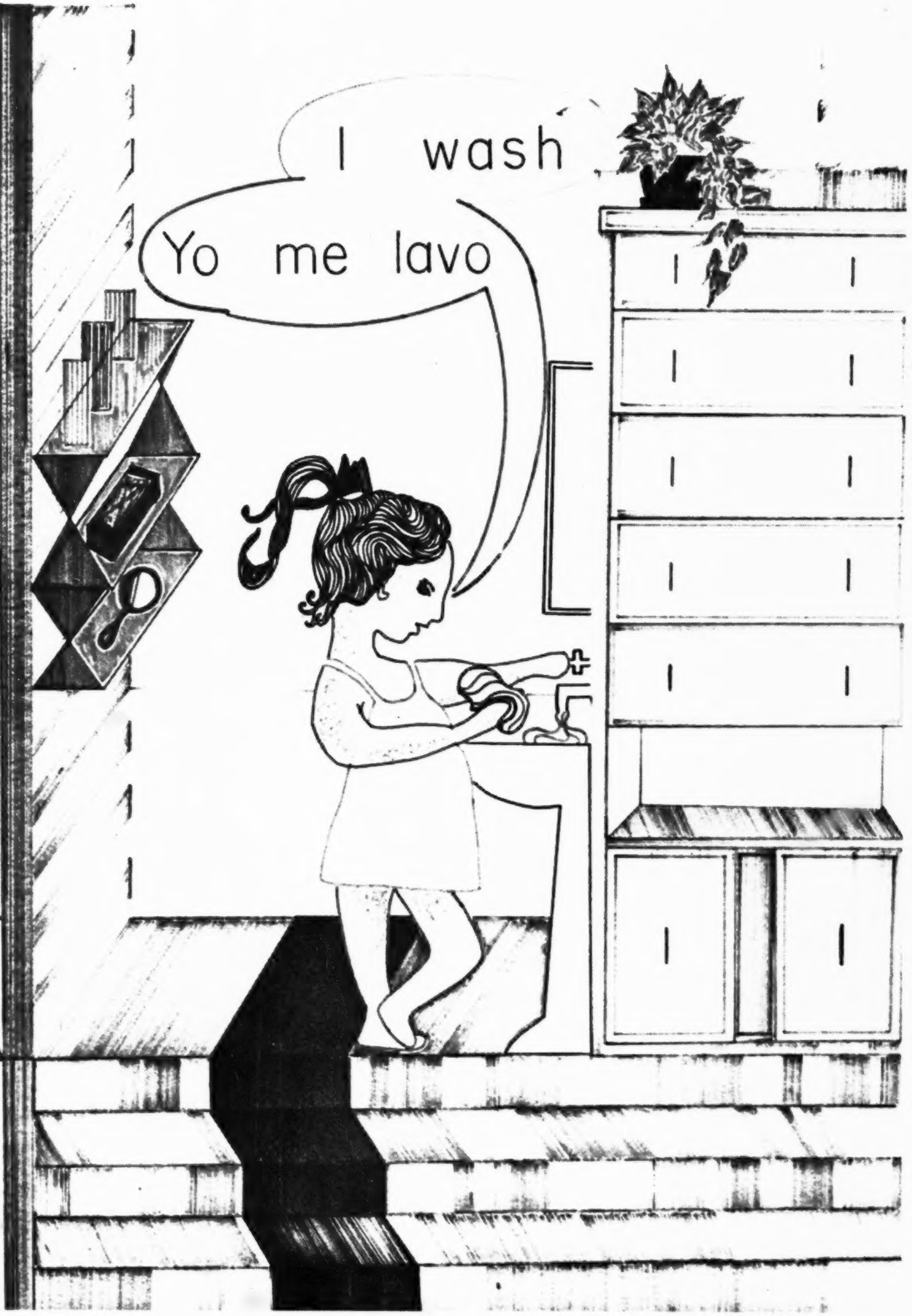
She climbs

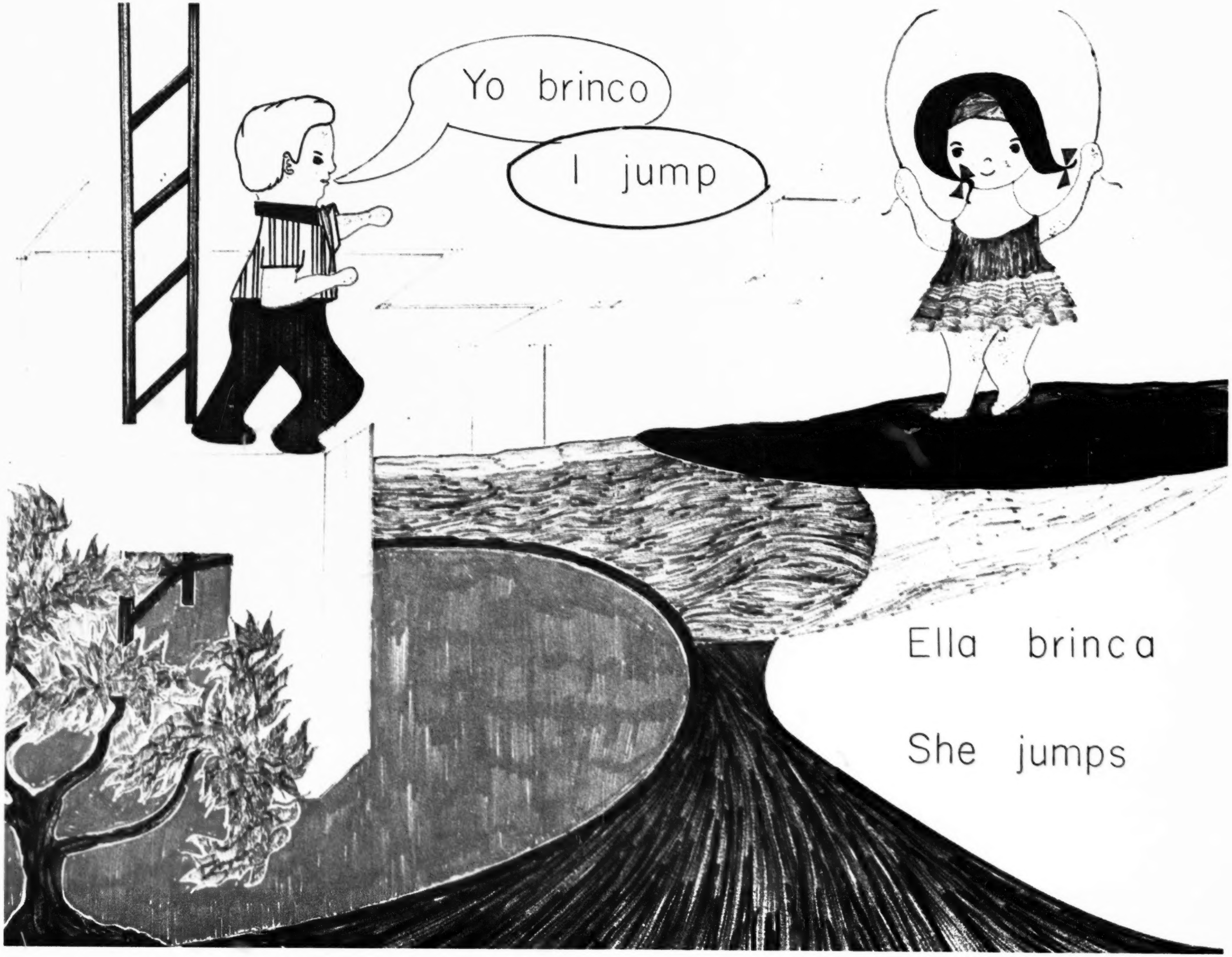
Ella sube



He washes

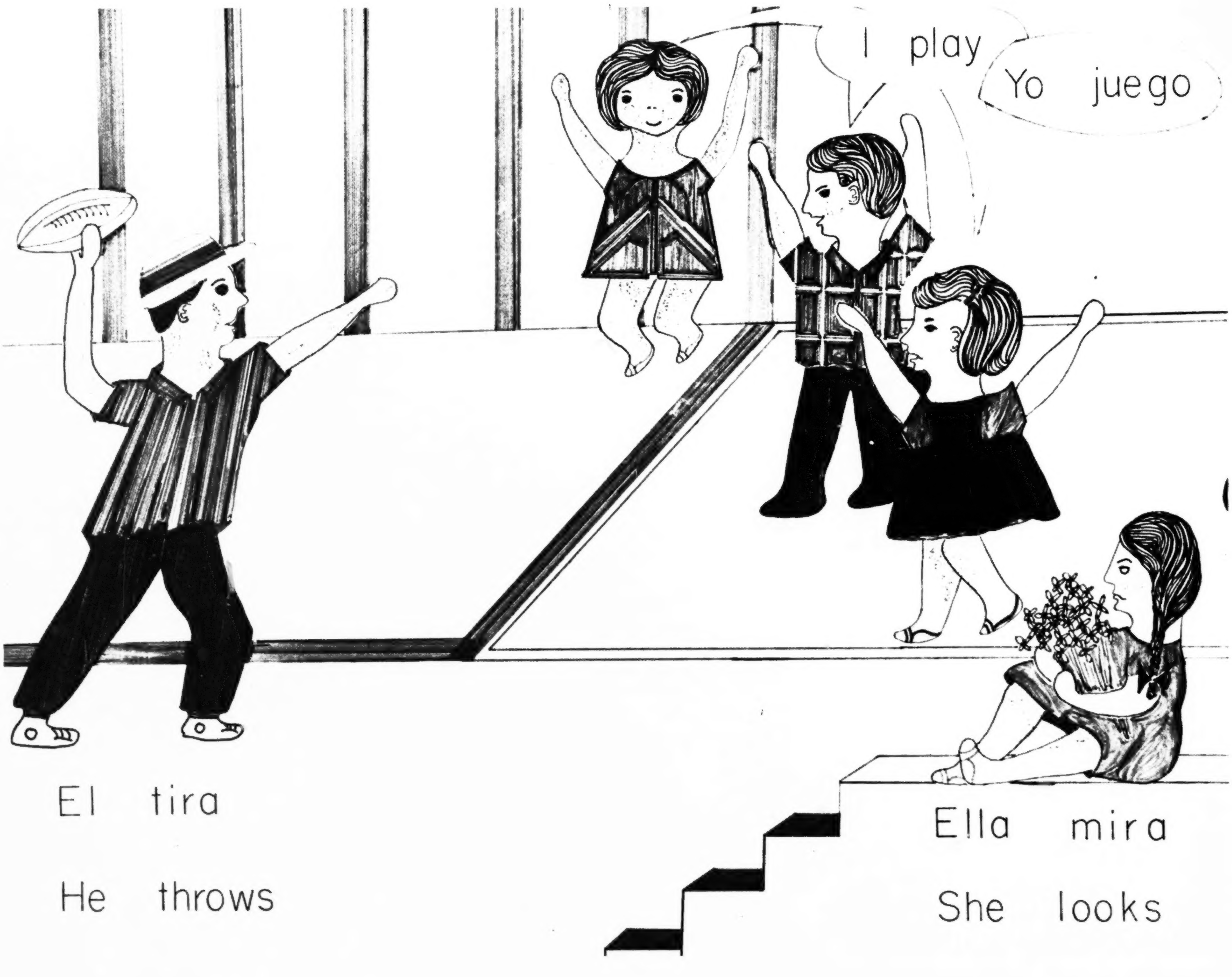
El se lava


I wash
Yo me lavo


Yo brinco
I jump

Ella brinca

She jumps

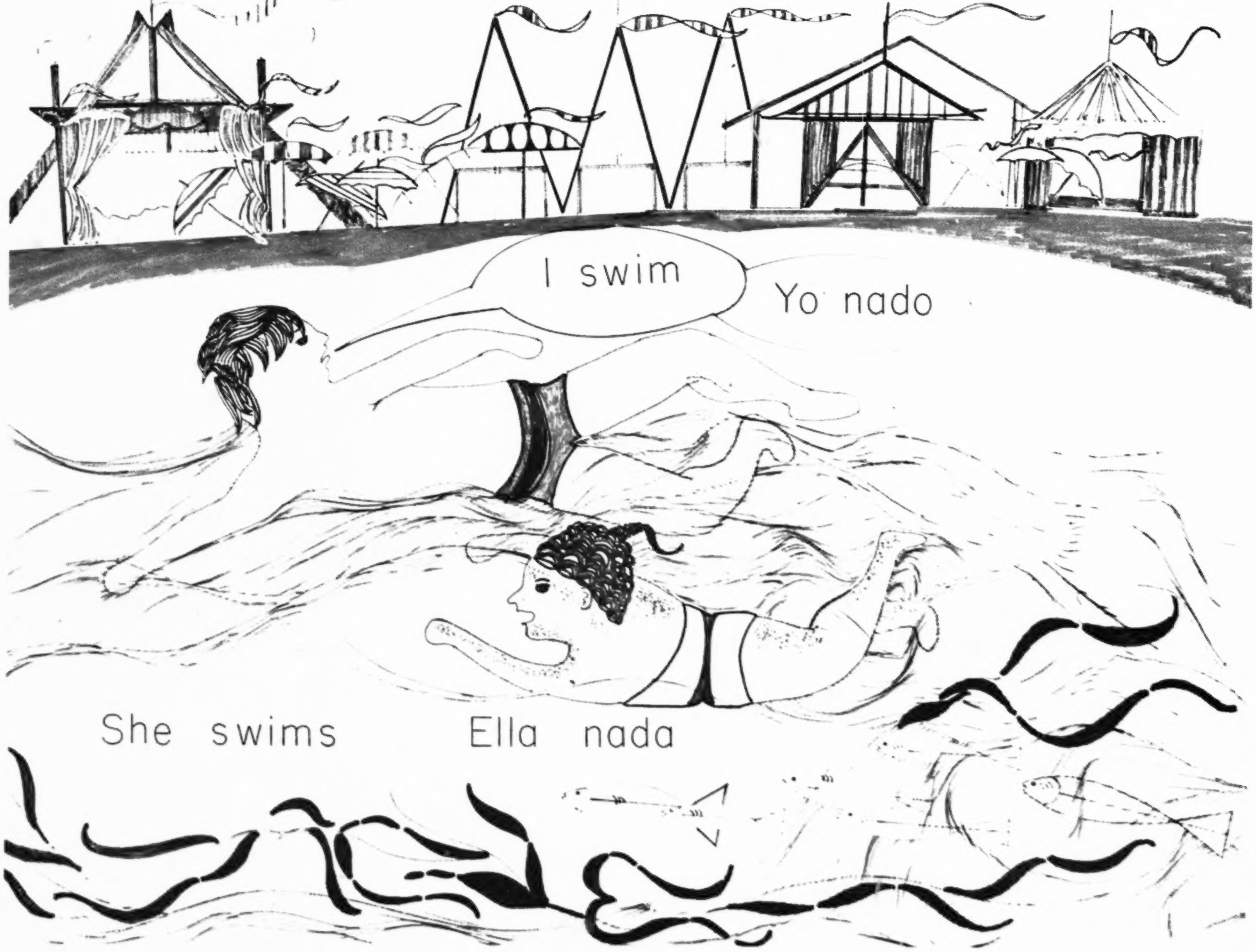

I play
Yo juego

El tira

He throws

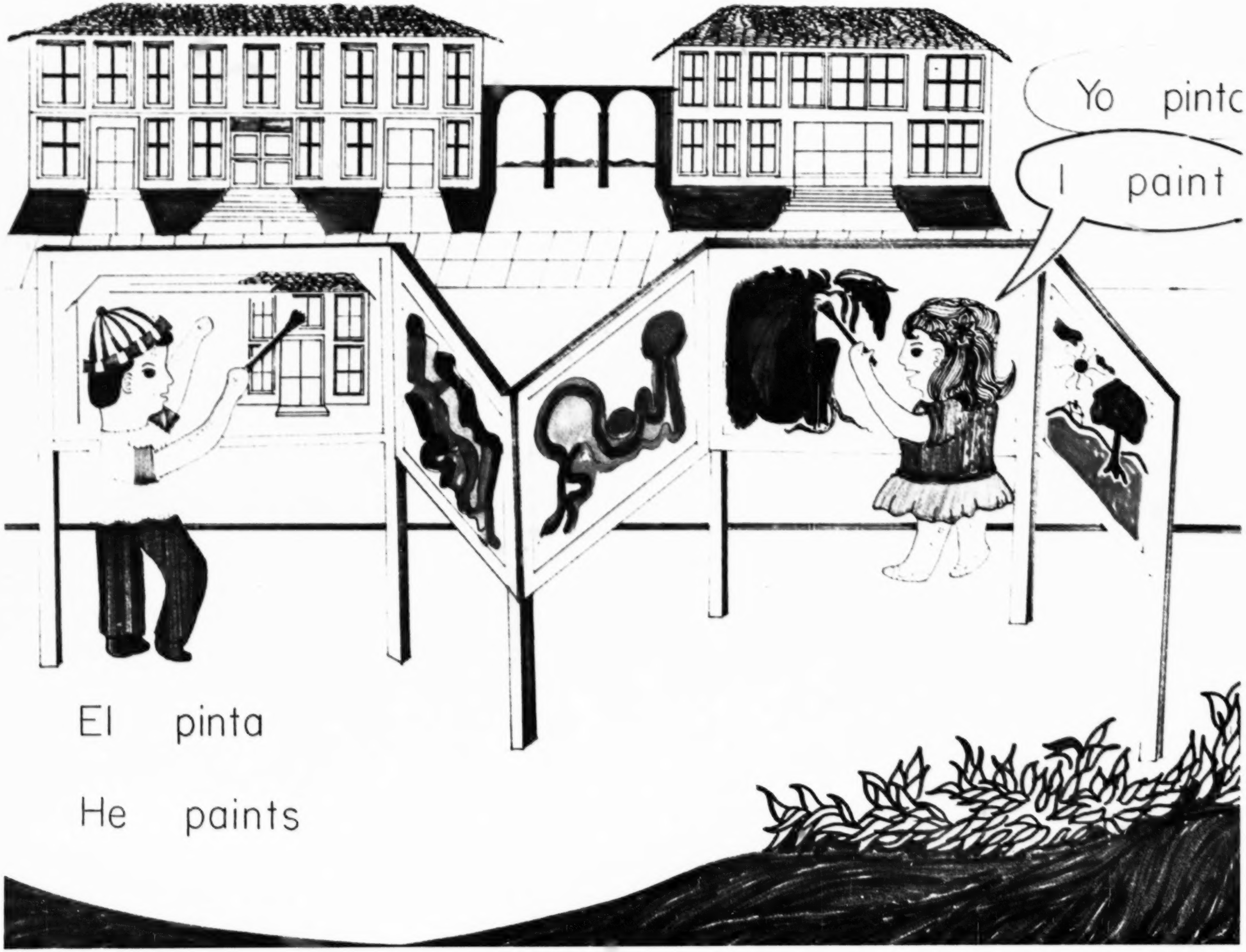
Ella mira

She looks



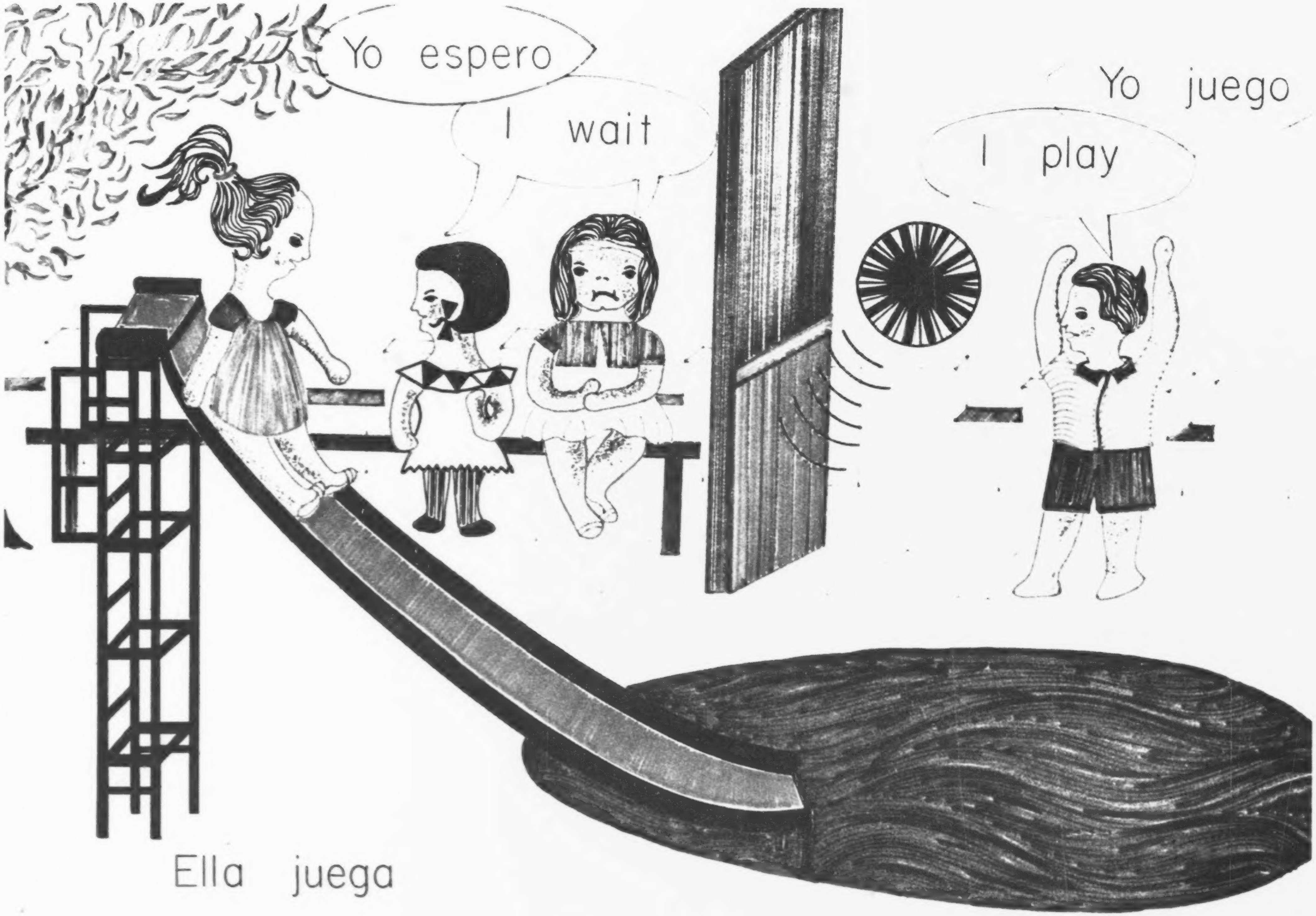
Yo nado

She swims Ella nada


Yo pintc
I paint

El pinta

He paints

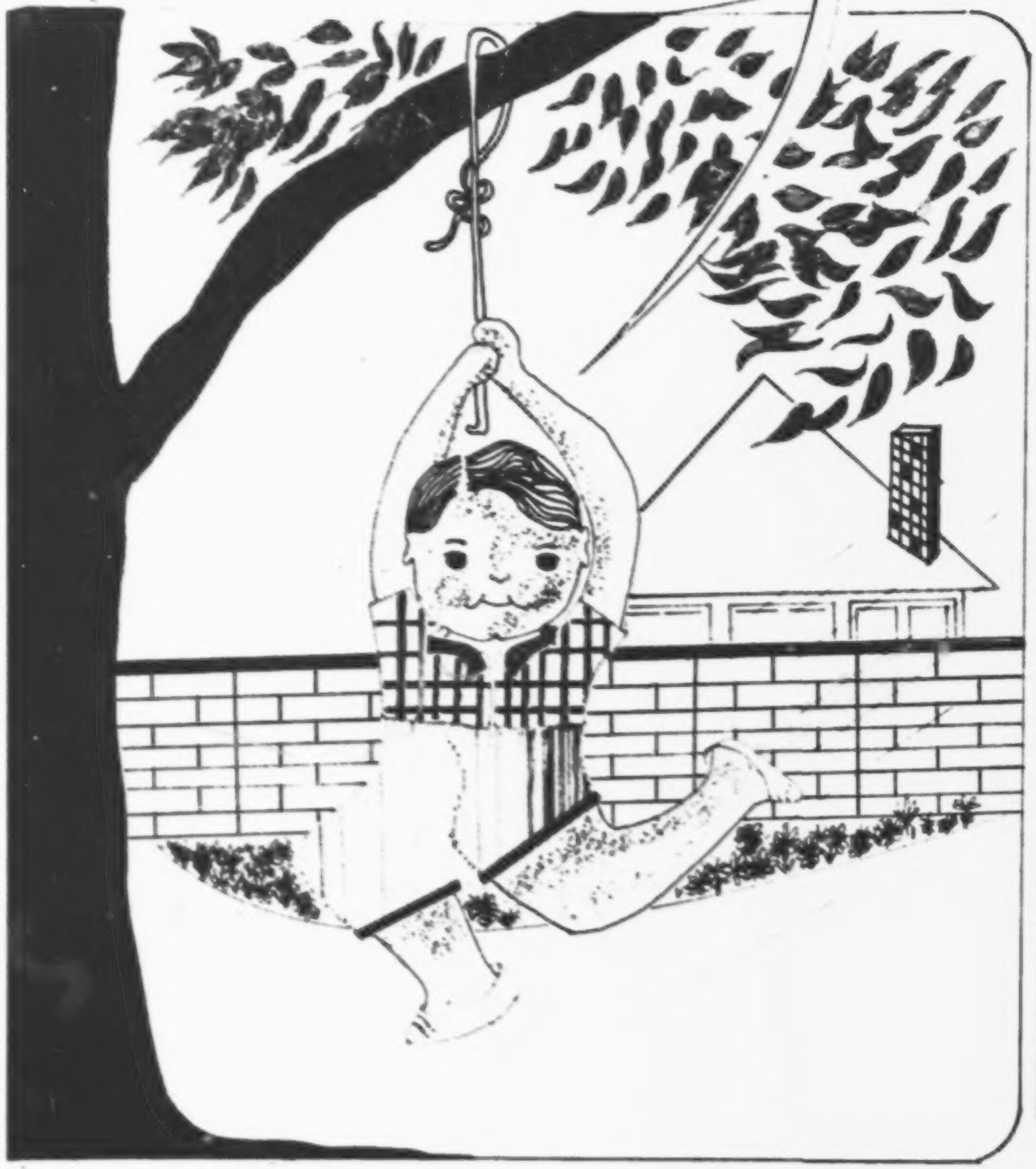

Yo espero
I wait
Yo juego
I play

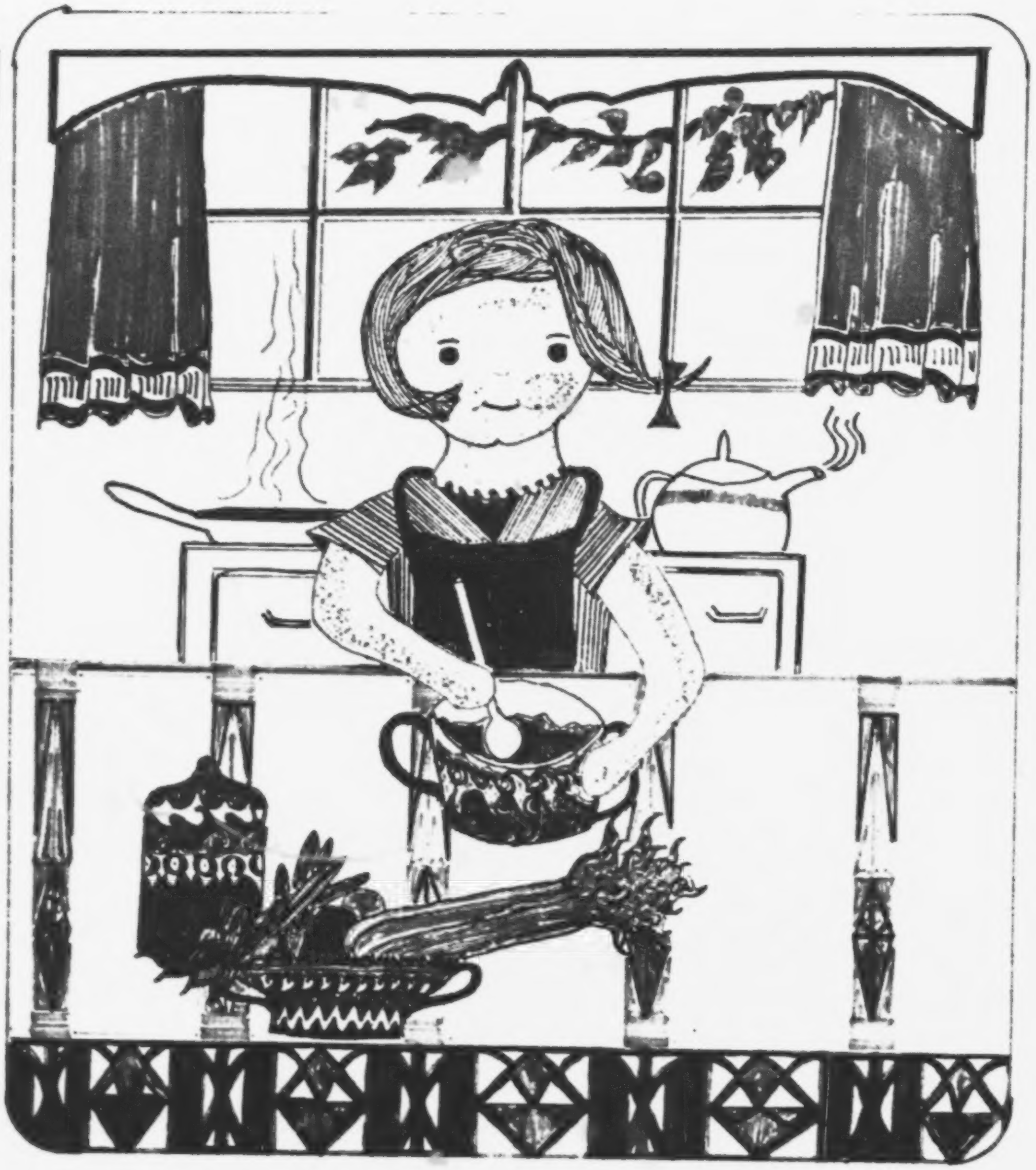
Ella juega

She plays

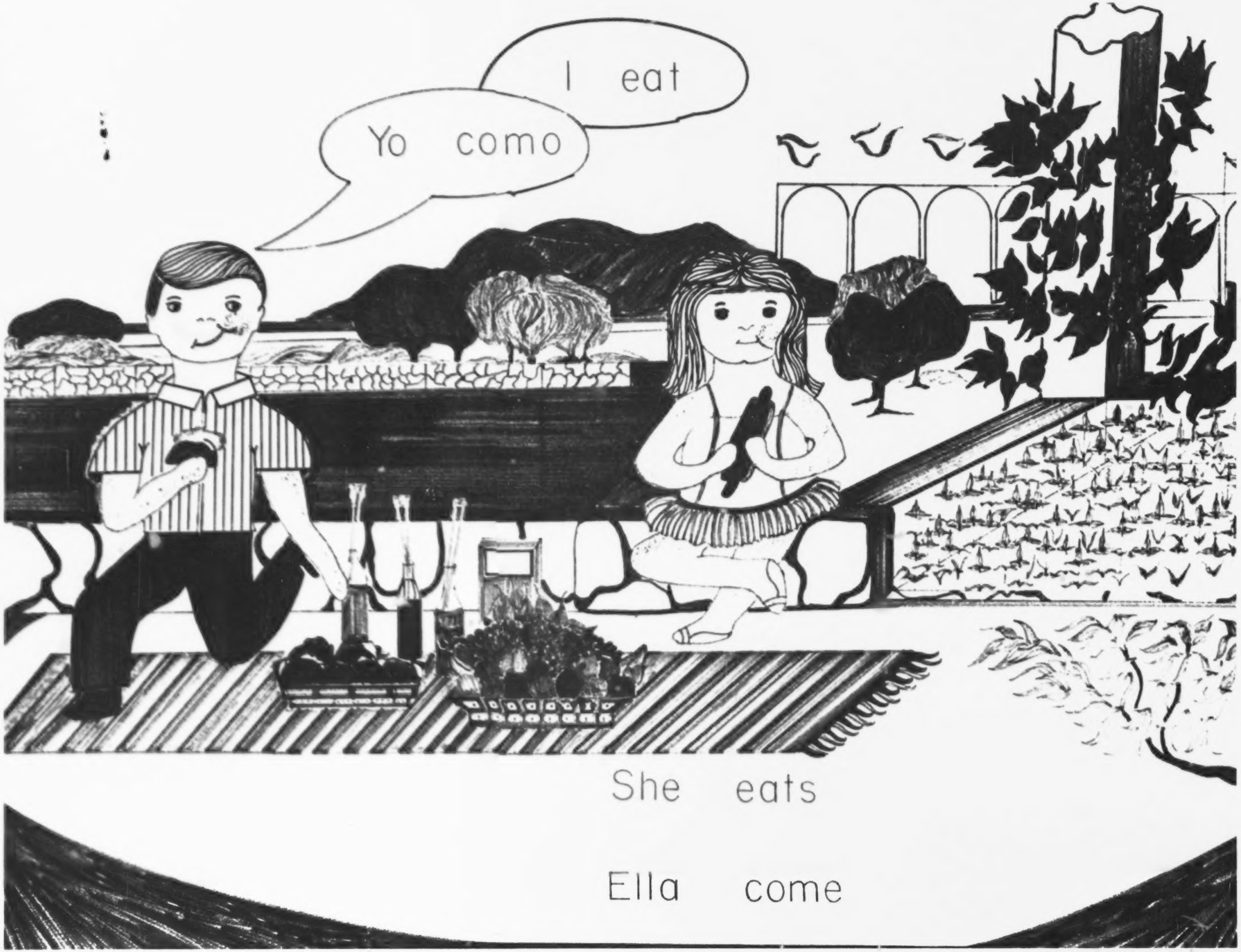
I swing

Yo me columpio



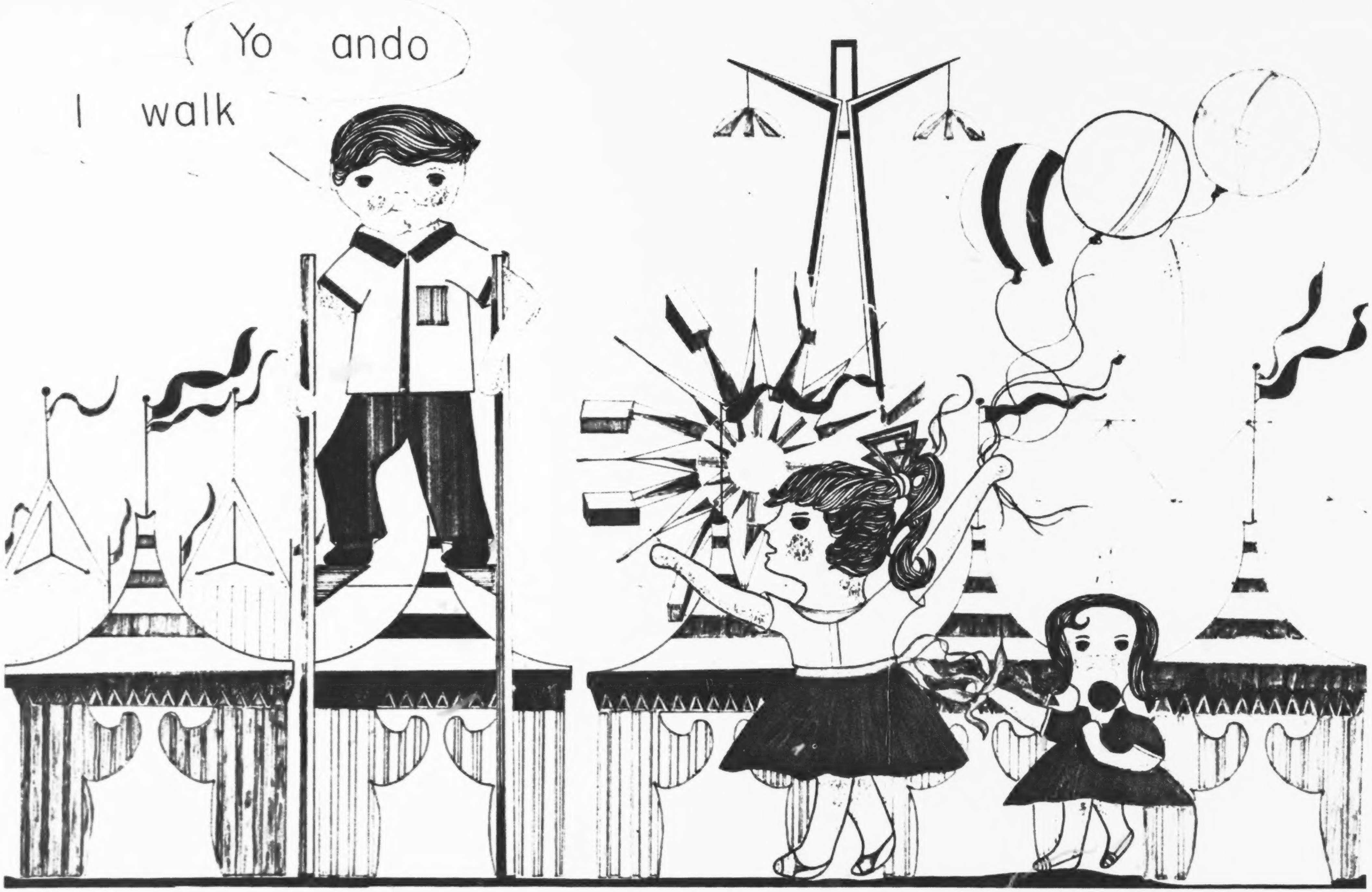


She cooks Ella cocina


I eat
Yo como

She eats

Ella come


Yo ando
I walk

Ella anda

She walks

Ella come

She eats

APPENDIX D.

SURVEY OF PARENTS' OPINIONS

MALABAR SCHOOL

FEBRUARY, 1968

SURVEY OF PARENTS' OPINIONS - MALABAR SCHOOL

I. Parents' Comments in English

1. I have a pet peeve with your educational system program. Too much emphasis is put on the Mexican-American child. You seem to believe that they all speak Spanish at home; they don't. Neither do they understand or speak it. So why don't you pay more attention to their problems, such as poor readers, spellers, etc.

2. I have noticed more strictness in homework, more improvement in reading. I hope it continues. P.S. I only wish this had happened 5 years back when I had two boys there and are in Jr. High and can't read at all.

3. I think too much emphasis is put in the Reading Project. It seems to me that there is a lack in their mathematics. This is very important so don't forget. Also all grades above the first grade should have a mandatory amount of homework sent home. I think Spanish is a very good subject to teach but only to those of the 5th or 6th grades. We should show our children to speak English correctly before we show them anything else.

4. I feel reading is very valuable. That is why I have hopes that the educational program will start the children at a very tender age. I think that homework is essential for a child because it helps to open wide the world of knowledge. A child should be disciplined no matter if in school or home. I like my child to know different languages such as Spanish. As for report cards, that is also an essential thing since the parents of the child can tell how they are doing in school and if they need special help in certain subjects.

5. Reading is of utmost importance and I'm very happy with progress shown in reading by my older children (3rd and 6th grades). Homework, in my opinion, should be very light at grammar school level—I think a teacher has every right to discipline a child. As to Spanish language, although proud of my heritage I believe English only should be spoken in school, otherwise a child will not take the trouble to learn English as rapidly if he knows he will be understood in his own language. Report cards are satisfactory and especially appreciate comments made by teacher on child. All in all I'm quite satisfied with teaching at Malabar.

6. Reading taught in the 1st grade is a good thing. As a child is eager to learn at that level. Homework is wonderful to help a child who might be a little behind. And also for parents to know what the child is learning. Discipline is as much necessary in the classroom as in the home. For a child is in contact with all types of children who may not have any in the home and will try to copy. Spanish should be taught in school as one should know of one's heritage and language. A parent who is interested in his child's progress will like a report from time to time. If maybe one were to plan activities with parents and children together where there might be half prices for large groups will be helpful in getting on a friendly basis with the parents. And in this

way the school and parents can work together for the benefit of the child and have fun too, as someone with a few children and little money may not be able to.

7. The reading method now in progress has helped my son improve in his reading. Reading is very important and I think it will be better as it progresses. Outings for the children are very helpful too. My children enjoy their school trips very much. A trip to the bank to open accounts is very helpful too. Our teachers are doing a wonderful job.

8. I want her to read and take time to study the words that she says wrong. Then do math, and study adding good. Then write sentences of his spelling words. Then do handwriting. I hope she learns her word and write them on paper to study at home I hope she remembers what she reads or sees on films and write what she read or sees on a paper for handwriting too.

9. I think this is a wonderful thing. By doing this educational program. The children will read better and write better too. It is very important for them to improve themselves. It will be good for them in the future. I am glad to know that the school is doing this for the children. I will do my best to help in anyway.

10. I am very pleased with the extra reading because if any child can't read then that child is completely lost. Please continue the reading and as for discipline allow teachers to use their measures.

11. It has improved within the last couple of years.

12. Since my son has been bringing home science books and other interesting reading matter his whole outlook on reading and learning has changed and to the better. He is so very inquisitive and it's a delight to me to see him so absorbed in something worthwhile. His reading is very good according to my opinion and the school and teachers that have taught him have done a great job. I am very pleased with my son and how well he seems to be doing. He loves to read and write and I hope he will be improving in all other categories as well, such as being an A-1 Citizen, discipline and all the other essentials. I hope he is fine in citizenship and good sportsmanship as well. His report cards have been just too good to be true and he has made us so proud of him. All in all, it seems the school program and teachers are doing a fine job and if ever I am needed in regards to any problems concerning my son, please call me at work or at home. I will be glad to listen and do whatever I can.

13. Reading is one of the most important subjects and you can't start too early. Every pupil should be given a little homework. I do not believe in corporal punishment but do believe in firm discipline. I believe Spanish should also be taught in our schools. I find your report cards quite satisfactory.

14. Reading - I think is very important but I find my children can

read words but don't really know what they have read because they are just saying words not reading a story.

15. I think reading is a very important thing for a child to know, because that way he or she will understand any book or any problem, about homework, he or she has to know that he has like a responsible thing to do. It's like if he was on a job and he had to do something that was under his responsibility. About discipline. I think that's the first thing they should be taught because without discipline the pupil won't accomplish nothing he or she has to learn that when they come to school they come to learn not to do what they want.

16. I have seen a definite improvement in my son's reading ability in the past year. My daughter in the 3rd grade has improved a little but still needs more help. I think the emphasis on reading should be kept up. There should be homework every day to give them good study habits. If they don't hand in their assigned homework the parents should be informed. Report cards keep the parent informed as to what progress the child is making. When the school takes the children on bus trips I feel they should take them to more cultural places such as museums, the music center, etc. My son was put in the enrichment class and he has learned a lot from the places they have taken him. He enjoyed the museum so much we took the whole family. More of these trips should be taken. Thank you.

17. My opinion is reading to me is important for the children to get more ahead in their reading. I believe that a little homework also is very good. But reading is the most important because they have to read to understand more things and learn the meaning of words not just know the words they have to learn and understand what they read.

18. Reading: I think you are doing very well in reading, but sometimes I think you should ask or explain to the children the meaning of the words so they will really understand. Homework: It will be better if there is homework about 3 times a week, beside reading for the lower grades. Report Cards: The report card would be better if it shows where your child stands in their class. I think this way the child would try harder to get ahead.

19. I think my child has improved on her reading. My only comment is that teachers should be more authoritative with their pupils. So their pupils should have more respect for them. They should learn that teachers and their teachings are very valuable for their future.

20. I think that one of the best ways to help students is to compel them to read well and also to understand what they are reading. Some times they read very well, then you asked them what did they read and they don't know. Please try, they develop their math mind too.

21. First of all I would like to say that I have had the pleasure to

see the reading program at Malabar and I feel that it is the best that I have encountered in the past five schools my children have attended. I would like to make one recommendation as to arithmetic. I feel that this is also important and should not be put aside. If we can get a system (as the reading) with arithmetic then we may well have put a step forward toward better education for our children.

22. I really cannot evaluate the school since my child just started kindergarten. I would like to know how the instruction in reading has been improved. And how could I help my child learn to read, is there a certain method? What kind of material or books should I use? I would like my child to have plenty of homework. I think there should be individual tutoring for children that are bad in subjects like arithmetic and reading. Once a child doesn't learn in a group, he'll be left behind if passed to a higher grade, then that child will probably be left behind in jr. high and high school in that same subject.

23. I think reading program is one of the best classes you have. To help our children. Also the homework they bring home helps them a great deal.

24. Reading: Writing is very important and so is discipline because if there is no discipline children will try to get away with not doing their homework or reading and so on. They say I don't have homework or I don't have anything to do.

25. In order to help our children in their homework, English, reading, and math, we have to know how to read and write ourselves. Also we need to encourage them with our help so they can take more interest in all their homework or problem they have. We should help them to better themselves as much as possible in English and in Spanish language. As parents we should take more interest in their education so when they grow into men and women they will do the same to their children.

26. I think reading is a very good thing we should have it for the children for them to advance more. About discipline children should have discipline for the teacher to a point only. Parents when it comes to serious discipline should be talked over with them. Also some time teacher don't take the time to hear a child out like in a fight etc. They might just point to one instead of finding out how many children were to blame. They believe by saying one child started it that's all they need. There is always more than one. Also a child can be more free more honest and learn to respect the teacher, because she takes time to get to the root with everyone, and she shows she is concerned for all and is not taking sides. I also believe that the cafeteria food could improve even if it means going up. I also believe that report cards can improve. It could improve like I said before if a child believes a teacher is fair to all not just one. It will give them something to want to try and work hard for. Thank you.

27. I'm very happy with the phonics program that the school has in order to help the child read better. As for homework in the first grade I think the teacher is the best one to decide what each child needs to improve and work on it at home.

28. On Reading: By getting children to stand by their desk and read aloud to the whole class so they c ould overcome their shyness. Maybe one paragraph each.

29. My opinion is that all children should learn how to read and write and to learn how to get a good education.

30. I think it is very good and I also think that the reading skill would be very good for my child.

31. I think reading is a very good and important subject in school. Discipline is also very important. I am also glad that you send report cards home with the children because it gives us a chance to see if our children are improving or not.

32. To read to them and help them read. Sit down with your child and teach her how to write her name and A,B,C's answer her question when she ask you how to do something.

33. I wish my kids would learn more in reading in everything so he can have a good report card and in Spanish language and in homework.

34. Please give my daughter reading homework. Thanks.

35. More home visits between teachers and parents. More homework is need for children for weekends. Some mothers are more than willing to help children in their own homes with reading. I myself can help two or three children, those children that need it.

36. Homework on reading is very important.

37. I want you to give my daughter homework and books to read. I would like you to explain me more about this. I think that is a good idea and also I want you to give her so that I can help my daughter to know how to read and how to learn the words and how to spell them. That's all I have in comment. Thank you.

38. We enjoy helping our son with his reading homework.

39. I for one think that giving the children homework is very good for them, and makes them realize that school is for learning and it gives us mothers a chance to see what our children are doing and how they are getting along with their school work. I have seen a great improvement in my son in his reading and his enjoyment in books.

40. She hasn't homework. I think your discipline methods are good. I would like my daughter should have Spanish language classes.

41. Here are my answers to your questions, in evaluating the following:

Reading -- I do not know what system you are using, therefore I don't know what to day other than my child is learning.

Homework -- Alright.

Discipline -- All right if not overdone.

Spanish language -- I feel that every Mexican American should know his own language. In my opinion it is a disgrace not to know your own language.

Report card -- Very good, as it helps parents to see how their children are doing at school.

42. In our house hold Spanish is no problem, it is a problem in reverse, our children don't speak or understand it at all.

43. My opinion is that we as parents should encourage our children to go to school. We should help them with homework and if the child is behind in reading give him or her extra help. Once they catch up with reading the other subject will be easy for them.

Discipline should start at home. We as parents should teach our children to respect and obey their teachers if the child does not obey the teacher should send a note or call their parents.

Spanish -- I think that we as Mexican parents should teach our language at home.

44. Since many of the students have problems in reading, I do not favor teaching Spanish on the elementary level. Teachers should stress the respect and the rights of others -- especially where trespassing and destruction of private and public properties are concerned.

45. Regarding Spanish language -- I think that children should be taught or told of the advantages of learning two languages or more. It seem children of Spanish speaking parents dislike the Spanish language and so many grow to learn neither well. I approve wholeheartedly the introduction of Spanish in elementary then in higher grades they can elect other languages.

46. I would like to say that teaching reading by phonics is wonderful. My children have benefit from it. Books that they choose from your library have captivated their interest and they have preferred reading from television! Spanish should be encouraged (many times) but I do feel that pronunciation of the English language should be emphasized especially in this area to improve quality.

47. I think Spanish like any other language should be taught to whomever desires.

48. I would like my son to bring homework everyday and if he doesn't do what the teacher tells him to punish him. English is more preferable than Spanish because he can learn enough Spanish at home. Thank you.

49. (1) The reading program is excellent. The fact a child can read at his own speed and is not classified into reading groups is great. I've seen poor readers faces glow when they finish a page not aware others are far ahead of them. (2) I feel there should be more homework. It teaches responsibility and gives a child a sense of importance to come home and say he has to do an assignment for the next day. Beginning in kindergarten, though it may be practicing writing their name. (3) I'm happy to see the school encourage Spanish speaking children to hold on to their heritage. I would like more of this if possible. Pride of their background will make them more complete as adults. (4) I would like to suggest at each semester the teacher visit the home of his pupils once to meet the parents. I feel it would make it easier for the parents to go to school with more ease. I know it would take teachers at least thirty visits to finish, but I do believe it would be worth the effort.

50. My opinion is that in order for a child to read better they should be taught the A.B.C.'s thoroughly, that by the time they pass to the 2nd grade they already know every letter, how it sounds, how to write it, and I think that this helps them a lot. I have seen and heard some children that are passed the 3rd grade and don't even know them. I think that the child's parents should enforce discipline and make sure that it is done at home. Also I think that they should speak Spanish and not forget it especially if it is their native tongue. About report cards I make it clear to my children that I am expecting good grades or at least that I know they are improving in their grades and their school work. I also tell them how important education is in order to have a good and better life.

51. On reading I suggest that pupils read and make an oral or written report on what they read, there should be homework over the weekends so they can have it ready for Monday at the latest Tuesday. The Spanish language should be up to the student if he wants to take it up its up to him individually. Though I think that the Spanish language should be taught to whoever wants to learn it as in any other language. The way I look at the report card is by looking at the cooperation, effort, work habits and citizenship of the child. If I see that he is down on this then I know that he is not paying attention and then I tell him the reasons why he should be improving his grades and it usually works and I tell that he can do better with his effort, work habits. But if I see a report card where the child was good in work habits, effort, cooperation and good citizenship, then I know that he is trying but his problem is he doesn't understand the work so then I get down and start asking him to let me know if he doesn't understand something and it usually turns out that he don't understand the way they explain it. So I try different methods or different ways

to explain what they are trying to get across. So when I finally succeed I can see that he gains confidence since he broke through what he couldn't understand.

52. I have spoken to several teachers in other schools and the comments made on Malabar are extremely favorable. It is considered one of the best supervised and staffed schools in the city. To my way of thinking report cards are really of no value. I think conferences with the parents would be of much more value, especially in our part of the city. Where so many parents do not understand the real meaning of report cards. Speaking to these people would be so much better because they are told what their child is doing and perhaps what can be done to improve. I think in this way they will be much more interested in the work of their children, then if a card is taken home and the child will say "My teacher said to sign this." They sign and in many instances they don't even ask what they have signed. English should certainly be stressed the child should be urged to speak English at all times. He can be told that his language is good and beautiful, but that he already speaks and understands it perfectly, so he could do his best to learn an important second language as soon as possible. Since English will be the language he will have to use in all future schooling, he should be urged to learn it well and speak it often. The food in the cafeteria can certainly be improved. It has been brought to my attention by my children and several other children that the food is not very good. One child had a moth in her soup the other day and had to wait quite a while before she was given another bowl. Really I should not have said all this so positively since I have not eaten in the cafeteria myself. The children may have a legitimate complaint or not but complain they do. Feel free to tell me they are wrong, as that would make me happy.

53. 1. Reading - I'm very satisfied with, reading program of the school. I believe my son is reading quite well and understands thoroughly what he reads. 2. Homework - at grammar school level should be very light. 3. No parent in his right mind should object to discipline by a teacher. 4. As to Spanish, it's a beautiful language but we should not handicap our children and insist they should speak it all the time, they will have to go out and compete in a world where English is the language spoken. Therefore in my opinion English Only in the schools. 5. Report cards - sometimes I find report cards confusing and wonder if grades given to them are based on tests alone. After looking over my son's work during a 6 week period sometimes I find a "B" average on all his written work, yet when report card time comes around he has a "C" grade. The over all picture is satisfactory to me and feel they are extending a fine educational course especially in reading as stressed in this survey.

54. I think that the Malabar School has the finest teachers that I have ever met. They are doing a great job when it comes to the Spanish language. As an American I think, if we had more bilingual teachers all over America, the English language wouldn't be so difficult to understand, because when someone speaks your own language, you feel more at ease, and are more willing to learn, because you can communicate, if there was something you didn't understand. But when you can't get something across to the teacher you just abandon it, and that is why so many children are behind on their school work! On homework, I think they are a little bit strict. When they have homework 4 days in a row, it is too much for anybody. Parents don't have a chance to talk with their children anymore, for by the time they have dinner and do their homework its bedtime! So I would suggest every other day - would give everyone a days rest and more time together! Everything else is great, report cards - etc., etc. Only one big complaint, which I know a lot of parents agree with me, but some don't speak English and so keep the problem to themselves. It is the cafeteria service: It's lousy - they advertise something on the menu and serve something else, and sometimes the children get only a slice of bread, one small carton of milk and a wiener for 35¢. I think that is very very unfair! I don't know who is running the show, or who cooks there, but if that person doesn't pay more attention, I think he or she should be replaced. Don't they realize that children have to eat in order to think better and to feel better. Obviously someone doesn't care, as long as they get the 35¢. Some of my children have come home from school, dragging or with a headache, because they did not get enough to eat at noon. So I don't let them eat there anymore, unless I'm not going to be home on that day. I want to contribute a suggestion and maybe it will help. Why don't they appoint someone from the sixth grade to go in the morning from room to room and count the number of children that are to eat there, that will give them an idea of how much food to prepare, and no one will be hungry. I hate to have to report this, but its only for the welfare of my children, but for all the other children that are being treated like this. Someone has to bring it out in the open. I hope something can be arranged!

55. I am happy with the progress my child is doing in school. There is no language barrier at home as there is no Spanish spoken at home. The comment written on the back of the report cards at the end of the term, I do like I do appreciate to know how my child did during the semester.

56. I think you have done a wonderful job in everything, what I am most happy about is your program on reading and Spanish and of course your homework that I think is of great importance. So keep up the good work.

57. Many times my child comes home with homework which he cannot do because he does not fully understand it. He says the teacher explained it to him in class but young children have a tendency to forget or overlook many of the important things. I realize that in grammar school many things must be covered. As you teach and progress, the child usually forgets many of the things taught to him before. I thought perhaps if you kept repeating and recovering the material briefly again and again, the children might remember the material a little better.

58. I think there should be more supervision on children going and coming home from school especially on the stairway on Folsom Street because there is fighting and the older children sometimes search the younger childrens' pockets and beat them up.

59. Some teachers don't teach time tables until the child is ready to leave the class. (graduate) My child complains that his teacher is not explaining his math before he is to do it. If the child has his problem wrong he is to work the problem out without the teacher's help.

60. Will you please adhere to this desire that I am about to present to you? It is imperative that they learn cultural, music and instruments of music to make their minds function better to increase increment of mental capacity. Also encouragement and confidence in studies. Once noter of music and songs sonatas and waltzes for effortless progress. The need is now for knowledge. Please excuse my writing. To remove the music is to remove knowledge.

61. I think that math should be given more as some of these children cannot add two and two.

62. So far the homework my son is having to do is fine. The course that should get more emphasis is spelling. Discipline, such as keeping the child in class should be done after school not during lunch hour as my children seem to get upset stomach having to rush to finish their food in time.

63. I would like more discipline inside of the class rooms and I want some homework everyday. I am very grateful for your concern for our children if I can be of any help let me know. Thank you.

64. In my opinion, the way things are now is just fine except for some children that are slower than others it would be nice if it was possible for a teacher to take more time with those children, because with some children their grades are bad because they don't really understand their work and in my opinion if this happens then the child starts acting bad not because they really want it. Just that their unsatisfied with themself. They do

take some time out for these children but is not enough because at times homework is sent for the child to do and if the parents don't know how to do it then the child sunk, and not just the child is upset but the parents. Thank you.

65. First of all I would like to say Malabar is a wonderful school. Three of our girls graduated from Malabar. We're satisfied with the manner in which they were taught all subjects. We hope our three boys now attending Malabar will show the same respect for their school, learning and their teachers. That's really about all I can say except, keep up the good work.

66. I would appreciate it if you would help my daughter in some of her classes, especially in arithmetic also spelling and English, social studies if you don't mind, helping her get better grades. Thank you.

67. To whom it may concern I am satisfied with what my children are learning in school it also gives me an opportunity to thank everyone teachers and principal for teaching my children. All my kids have gone to Malabar, 8 of them. Once again I thank you. I hope you understand my writing.

68. My comment is that she needs arithmetic for homework.

69. I am satisfied with the way school is handled. Thank you.

70. We think of the following as you do. That it is very important and are for it all the way.

71. I am very pleased at this time I do not have anything to say.

72. I think you are doing fine with the children. I am only sorry I have not been able to be closer in following the school program.

73. In my opinion she is doing fair.

74. I am very pleased the way you are teaching my daughter.

75. Please let us know the price of milk, orange juice, ice-cream, etc. So we could give correct change to our children. I hope you make the homework sheet more clear (print) and neat. Thank you.

76. Very happy in what you teachers are doing to help our children to learn reading, homework as for discipline, I guess it's O.K. except I would not like to hear that my child was slapped across the face by no teacher if she is bad punish her by staying after school or send me home a note. Thank you.

77. I am happy with the progress my child has made at school. Language is no problem as there is no Spanish spoken at home. I do like the comments the teacher writes on the back of the report cards at the end of the term. I think that most parents, like myself like a small comment written, as to state how your child did during the school year.

78. Teach the kids their math in a way which will be much easier to understand cause my son says he has trouble understanding math and is always ashamed to ask after something has been explained. Also to have more confidence in their teachers. Also maybe a little more homework in math and English also try to teach them Spanish as well as English in writing as well as reading.

79. I will suggest that you give some homework to the kids and when they don't bring it to the school write a note to parents, that way we parents take active part of the education of our children. At the same time this give the opportunity to parents to get in touch with what our boys and girls are doing in school.

80. Homework, I think is a very helpful and gives parents and children something to do and give us an idea of what they are doing and where they need most help.

81. I recommend you leave homework to the children, like reading or writing, that way they are more interested in school. My boy loves to read a lot and we try to help him as much as we can. He likes to work on his "My do and learn book" which I think is very good.

82. My comment is that they need more homework so we can help them.

83. Allow the student to take their regular class books home where they will have more time to go over what they were taught during class hours. Assign more homework to students to do.

84. Yes I do think it's a good idea for my child to have homework. I know they study in school all day but a little homework after school is good for them. Especially if their grades are low in school. Thank you.

85. My comment is that she need homework.

86. Well I think the teachers should give them more of everything. In my opinion I think it is well-done for the teachers to give them more extra work because my child need more help in all of his subjects.

87. My comment would be that children who are more slow to learn be given more homework to take home.

88. I would like my son to get more homework.

89. By us the parents helping the children, or by the parents seeing that the child is understanding whatever he or she is doing. I believe that homework is an essential part of school, it gives the child a sort of responsibility away from school, that is where the parents should come in, see that it becomes part of the day for the child. Discipline should be applied in school, but the parents should apply most if it, or see that the child starts discipline early, good habits and manners, etc.

90. On homework I think its a good idea especially on weekends. I think that they should give oral or written reports on what they read.

Discipline should have but not to extremes.

91. I wish there was some new method of teaching reading. I have one child who is very hard to teach reading to.

Homework is very necessary, both for the child and parent. Only I think a more thorough explanation to the child at school could be beneficial. I have one child that complains that things told to do as homework are not explained by the teacher.

We do not speak the Spanish language at home. I, also, had to learn it out of a book. It is very necessary for future use in school, and now, most jobs need knowledge of Spanish, or other languages.

Parents, as well as the children, have to be taught to get along with each other. I have recently heard one neighbor tell her children (foster-children) not to walk to school with mine and states her reasons. Although we live in the same neighborhood, she believes herself above others and is teaching children how to be the same. This is not right. We are all equal. Children should not make fun of each other regardless of race, or creed. And, I think school, while they are still young, is the best place to learn this. I know, I did.

92. I think it is a very good idea to have homework, and discipline, and those other things mentioned on this paper. If there is any problem you would like to talk with me about, I will be glad to go to school and see you. Thank you.

93. I believe that homework is important - also the English language, discipline in the classroom and in the yard, respect for adults, both in school and outside. I say English because many of our children come from homes where only Spanish is spoken, and I believe knowing English makes it easier for them. Many children don't speak English, or Spanish, and this makes it just a jumble

of both. Math. - because, this is something we use all our lives. This could be explained better by the teacher, because most students complain that teachers take no time to make some math. clear to them; that they just race through and say, "Now, go do it," or if the student is a slow child, it can be a very painful experience for him or her. And he may never learn math. because of it never being explained or made so he, or she, can understand.

94. I think the children should be encouraged to use the public library more often and to hand in book reports. They should have an outline printed so they can refer to from time to time when making their book reports. I think all children should have some kind of homework. I believe discipline starts at home, and if my grandson misbehaves in school, he should be disciplined. It would be wonderful for the children to learn the Spanish language, but I think it should not be taught in grammar school and should be left as a selective for whoever wishes to learn it later on. Report cards are very good because it lets me know how my grandson is doing, more or less. I think all homework should be checked or graded when returned to school. Thank you for letting me give my opinion.

95. My opinion is on Spanish language. I think if your schools keep insisting on teaching our children Spanish language in such a big way, you are keeping them behind time. I am American. I was born American. My children are also born in America, so by an act of God we are American, so by right we must speak English. We were born in this country, and we love it. If we go back to Spanish, we are going back fifty years. We struggle and they will keep calling us "Second Rate Americans." Right or wrong, we chose America.

96. You are showing us how we can help our children in getting ahead in their education. This new program in reading and writing is making the child improve in speech, to speak clearly and correctly. We all know how difficult English language is for us Spanish-speaking mothers and fathers, that sometimes we don't speak correctly our own language, or English is not easy for a child to learn fast if he is learning half of two languages. This is a problem that is going to take a little more time for all of us. If you try to make more parents come everyday to their children's rooms to learn how to help the children at home with their school work, this will give more opportunity to the children to succeed in all grades.

You are doing a good job with our children. I'm very grateful to my children's teachers because I understand how hard it is to work with them.

Parents' Responses - Translated

97. I believe that it would be convenient that to reading and writing Spanish the teaching of love of family, and respect for the teachers, adults, and the parents, would become an established part of the educational plan.

Referring to the Spanish, it is very important for a more complete understanding, as well as the adaptation to life in this great country. My wife and I give all our support to this program.

98. The education is magnificent. Regarding the Spanish, it is perfect. I am in agreement with everything about this system.

99. My opinion is that the children should be better in reading than they are. As for the discipline, it is magnificent. As for the homework, you should give the children a little more to do at home. As a mother of children who go to school there, my thanks are the best.

100. Regarding the reports in Spanish, I believe it is a good idea being that there are many of us who do not read English.

I would like you to give them homework. Regarding Spanish classes, as it applies to me, I don't want them to have lessons in it. They should be spoken to in English during the first years, because we do not have the ability to teach them English here at home. Instead, only Spanish is spoken. In the future or in higher grades, then, I would like them to be given classes in Spanish.

101. The reading instructions are the most important, because by their means one begins to understand study of any type.

If we do not understand how to read, we could not understand many things; how to understand the homework that is given to us at school, how to read discipline signs at school or in the city, and more than that, how to study and be able to understand many books in different languages that we are interested in studying.

This is why my opinion is that the base of study is reading.

102. Regarding the importance of reading and writing, which are the most important for the children and are the base of education, it is up to us (the parents) to help as best we can with all the work that the children want to accomplish. And counting on the help of the teachers, as we have done up to the present, we as parents would like the educational program to continue to improve as much as it can, as well as discipline, language, reading, and other studies. Thank you.

103. I would like very much to be able to help my children more, but I work and am not able to. Thus, I am sorry that I am not able to cooperate, but I am satisfied with how you work with the children because they have learned much, I say much, because we have only been living in this country two and one-half years, and although they do not understand English, they can now read and write according to their age, of course.

104. My children have changed very much. They have learned to read and speak the language, and I am very satisfied.

My repeated thanks to your teachers.

105. In my opinion, I believe that you have a magnificent teaching system. It seems to me that it is good that homework is given to them because it is a pastime for them; it keeps them out of the streets, and the practice of reading and arithmetic, in the afternoons is helpful to them.

106. The homework that is given to the children is fine. And the reading homework is also good. I see with pleasure that the children are progressing (a great deal). I help them do what I can, and I hope that they will continue to progress in the same manner as they have done up to the present.

107. I have noticed that with this new reading system, my child has progressed more. I would also like him to do homework everyday, in arithmetic, according to what he is able to do - a substantial amount, not too much - so that he will not become bored (in a tedious sense). Your sincere and loyal servant.

108. I would like to help my children, but I am not familiar with English. I suggest you give them a little more time in reading. I believe that only in school is it learned correctly. I appreciate the interest and work that is given to our children.

109. Our comment on reading and homework is that the children should become accustomed to reading a certain amount of pages. They should be given some work in arithmetic, or other subjects, and should be required to show homework during the morning so that they will become accustomed to put a major interest in doing their homework.

110. I always ask him for his homework and he answers, "The did not give me any." My opinion - that they be given two or three lessons, that they study them until they read and write them well. If it is possible, give them homework daily so that they become accustomed to having to present homework daily.

I think they could become accustomed, and the proper way to read would become engraved in their mind. I beg you to excuse me for giving this opinion. Many thanks.

111. My son is behind in his reading. Can you give him homework and urge him to study?

Teach him to write his name, his address, the months and dates, or something else, please, so that he may repeat them and learn to read in this manner.

112. In reading instructions, discipline, homework, and report cards, my daughter is doing well, and I don't believe there exists a better method than yours for teaching our children. Thank you.

113. My opinion is that reading is very important to the progress of the child and to teaching, and also, homework benefits a great deal so that they can unfold at home what they learn at school.

Discipline, the Spanish language, and grades are the base of the progress of the student for the honor of his school, himself, his parents, and his country.

I do not know in what form you wanted this note. Since I cannot visit the school because I am working, I wish much prosperity for the school and the students. Very affectionately.

114. It makes me happy that you consider us concerning the teaching of our children, and we are grateful that you have gone through the trouble.

Regarding the education of our children, my opinion is that the reading system that you have is not to my liking because my children read their books by memory and they do not know the alphabet, not even which letter it is. Well, I would say to learn to read and at the same time to write, they should be put to do the alphabet first. At the same time that they are doing the alphabet, they are learning to recognize the letter.

We wish you would give our children homework everyday, and that you would grade the homework the next day. That is very important for the children. With the anticipation of seeing the grades they will be more persistent with their homework.

Regarding discipline, I wish that when they misbehave (my children) you would reprimand and punish them, that you be firm enough with them, and that you let us know so that they will have a litte fear and will not misbehave again. This is our opinion regarding the learning of our children. A million thanks.

115. I believe that your program is magnificent, so that our children learn better.

The only thing I think (to comment on) is that the children learned to read because they memorized the words and not because they really know how to read. For example, my son reads a great deal, but only the words he knows, and he does not know the alphabet. He does not know the letters and in this respect I am not pleased.

I am pleased with everything else because children learn rapidly in your school.

116. My opinions are that he (she) can read and write better. His grades are satisfactory.

I try to tell him how to speak and write Spanish correctly. I do what is possible that he try to improve.

117. I would like to have my child given homework every day in the assignments that seem difficult to her, also, classes in Spanish if it is possible. Thank you.

118. I want him (or her) to bring his book home everyday so that he will read more, and it seems like a good idea that he study Spanish, and that he is disciplined well.

119. I am very grateful for the good work you have done in preparing my daughter. I see that she has benefited, and I am very satisfied with her homework and all that you teach them (all children).

I would like, please, that you give them classes in Spanish so that she studies it and writes it. Many thanks.

120. What I think is the following. I wish that you would teach the children to read by the phonetic system, because it is easier for the children if they learn the sounds of the syllables instead of comparing letters with drawings. Sincerely,

121. I am grateful for the grades that my son has obtained in reading and arithmetic.

122. My opinion is this. I want my son to learn to read and write Spanish. It is difficult for him to speak it. I teach him here at home, but he cannot pronounce it; the same with the English.

123. As a mother of two small children, who are students of this educational institution, I see that your efforts for the progress and education of Spanish-speaking students are very adequate, and that makes it easy for the child to understand and memorize being that, the English language is difficult to pronounce and spell. With this reading program and writing constantly, it will become easier for the student to improve his pronunciation, and to carry on a conversation with a better accent.

The majority of their parents speak Spanish, and this always makes the child learn slower.

And about understanding and having an exact idea of what he has read and said, I have noticed with pleasant surprise the advancement which my children have made as of the past two years.

I do not have adequate words to express my appreciation in respect to the dedication on the part of your teachers. This is what makes the child have interest in studying and learning as much as he can.

And if the mothers would do their part and cooperate more consistently, it would be a great stimulation for the children. Since they have very recently arrived from other countries, they find themselves somewhat alone and strangers in that the language is a barrier as they cannot communicate, most especially with the teachers, and this slows up the work and progress toward the betterment of the education of the child.

To those who are current in their studies a little more urging about their homework and a well organized discipline would be good since they waste too much time drawing and playing.

124. My opinion regarding the education of the children is, the main thing is to teach them to read and write, to learn correctly the English language because it is the one that is used in this country. On my part, I want to be able to help them with the homework which you give them to do at home, because it seems to me that it is a good idea (the homework). And that is what I will do. I will help them with what I can, because, to me, the education of my children is the most important. Thank you.

125. Our daughter shows no progress in her reading. I do realize that she is in a difficult situation because of her lack of understanding. She asks us the definition of each word and she wants it in Spanish. The little pronunciation that she can do is done in Spanish and English. When I ask her to read more, she says that there is no use in reading more because her teacher will put her back to the assigned pages. She has considered her teacher as a symbol of the law. She does not understand that the more she reads the faster reader she will become. We have tried to make her understand this, but she says that we don't know.

I suggest this; that there is a dictionary night, or two nights a week, so that our children will bring us the words that they mispronounced and did not understand correctly. We will then refer to the dictionary and help them with the pronunciation and definitions of the words. The words that are to be assigned for the dictionary night must be from books of their levels and from books that they use in the classrooms. Your attentive servant.

126. I wish my son would learn how to express himself better, and that he would be given more homework.

Without more to say, your attentive and loyal servant.

127. Frankly, I do not have any comments in regard to methods for the teaching of our children because I am content with the manner (form) in which you use your adapted methods to* bring them (cheerfully) this education that you know how to organize so well.

This then, is my comment. I know it does not help, but faithfully I do not have any comment regarding the scholastic teaching. Thank you very much.
(*brindis - to offer cheerfully, to offer one's services).

128. My opinion is that the educational program which this school follows is very good, and it is applied well. Thus, we wish that we could be informed of the defects that our children have so that we may help to correct them. Thank you.

129. I am very grateful for the effort that you have made for my children in teaching them to speak the language that they need so much for their well-being. I have been urging them to do their homework.

I hope that we, the parents and the teachers, will* reap the benefits of our efforts. Thank you for everything.
(*lograr - gain, obtain, succeed, reap the benefits of one's efforts).

130. I am in agreement with you regarding the teaching program that is given to our children, I hope that the children know how to take advantage of the sacrifice of the parents, family and all the teachers of this educational institution. I appreciate your letter very much, and thank you.

131. I wish you would give my son homework everyday in all the subjects of study in which he is behind.

132. In relation to our daughter, we appreciate your complaints and opinions since these are for her own good, and ours. Thus, for your satisfaction, we are pleased in as much as it is for the good of our children.

I hope I have expressed myself well, and excuse my orthography.
Affectionately.

133. I direct myself very attentively to the school to answer the following. I am very satisfied with the manner that this school is working toward the education of our children. It pleases me very much that my son brings homework home, being that I want my son to take advantage of most of his time to study.

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134. I am in agreement with the method in which our children are being educated, but I want to make this suggestion, that the children should be told that when they leave the school, on the way home, they should behave correctly, not to do indecent things, use disagreeable language, or show lack of respect for their elders. I would not want my children to be, behind my back, one of those children whom I have sometimes seen. I have nothing else to add. Everything is fine.

135. My opinion would be the same as yours, because there is no one better than the teachers to teach the student high ideals. Thus, it is that everything you will have as a project in the future will be the best, and your opinion is mine also. Thank you.

136. As far as I am concerned, all my children have benefited from your teaching system and I am very appreciative of your efforts toward improvement.

I have not been able to cooperate due to my obligations to my husband at home. I wait for him to arrive at different hours during the day in order to attend to his needs, and now I have a tiny daughter. I am truly sorry, because I really understand the problem that you have with the Spanish-speaking children.

137. I believe that the method you have is magnificent. My daughter has improved a great deal. Thank you. A sincere and loyal servant.

138. In respect to the discipline of my child, all is good. His report cards are also good.

I don't believe that a better method of teaching our children exists, than yours. Thank you.

139. It is very true what you say to us here. I am going to do all that is possible to help my children, and I believe that I will succeed. I hope the next report card will be better. And from now on I will dedicate as much attention as is possible to my children so that they will improve.

140. My opinion is that my children have advanced (much), and above all, they have learned the language that is so necessary. I give my thanks to the teachers.

141. I am very happy and in accord with this program. Everything is very good.

142. My comment is very rustic. I believe that you can decide which is the best type (form) that will be for the advancement of the children. I am at your service to help in the manner that you decide.

Please excuse my orthography, and many thanks.

143. I am very satisfied with the teaching that has been given to my children, and I am very grateful.

144. I am very sorry I am not able to cooperate with you, but I work at night and do not have time. But I am very happy with your educational plan.

My children go to this school and they have improved a great deal, thanks to you.

145. My opinion is that homework would keep my son busy a little more. Discipline is very important because my son is a little mischievous. It would teach him to be more responsible and with this my son would be able to bring me better grades that will be important to my son's future. Excuse my writing.

146. My opinion is: all that you are doing is marvelous. You are working very well and we are very grateful.

On my part, I admire your collaboration with our children. Very grateful and without more to say.

147. We are very grateful to all the school personnel. My comment is that both English and Spanish should be taught, and we at home will have him do what you have told him to do. Let us know his faults so that we may reprimand him. I also give my most sincere thanks.

148. Here is my opinion to your request for suggestions now that I have been given the opportunity. I want to say that the best educational plan is to give the children more homework and to verify the following day to see if they have really done their school work. Well, I as a father, ask the children if they have been given homework to do, and they say that they have not been given any. I appreciate your attention, and I send my most sincere thanks.

149. I am being forward enough to recommend that the children dedicate themselves to studying something in their homes during the weekends. The girls should at least (if nothing else) learn to embroider as it was done when I went to school. We learned something about everything. They should do plenty of penmanship exercises to improve their writing. That is all for the present.